DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 427 918 RC 021 815

TITLE	Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit for Primary Teachers. A Resource Guide for Educators of Limited English Proficient Migrant Students, Grades Pre-K-6. Third Edition.
INSTITUTION	State Univ. of New York, Oneonta. Coll. at Oneonta. Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training.; Region IV Comprehensive Center, Arlington, VA.; Appalachia Educational Lab., Charleston, WV.; Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC.; Educational Testing Service, Tucker, GA.; Region XIV Comprehensive Center, Tucker, GA.
SPONS AGENCY	Department of Education, Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	1998-00-00
NOTE	197p.; For second edition, see ED 347 024.
CONTRACT	S283A50018; S283A50007
AVAILABLE FROM	Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT), Bugbee Hall, Room 305, Oneonta, NYY 13820; Tel: 800-451-8058 (free).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom - Teacher (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Classroom Techniques; Cultural Awareness; *Educational Strategies; English (Second Language); Instructional Materials; *Limited English Speaking; Migrant Children; *Migrant Education; Parent Participation; Parent School Relationship; Primary Education; *Second Language Instruction; Student Evaluation; Teaching Guides; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

This new edition provides helpful information to busy mainstream teachers seeking practical advice on how they can more effectively include, instruct, and nurture limited-English-proficient (LEP) migrant students. Most of the strategies promoted are recommended for all students, not just LEP students. Chapter 1 presents cultural information to help teachers better understand and appreciate language-minority migrant students and their families. Chapter 2 provides strategies for involving LEP students in the mainstream classroom: total physical response, cooperative learning, language experience approach, dialogue journals, and games. Chapters 3 and 4 introduce strategies for improving the reading and writing abilities of LEP students. Chapter 5 presents math exercises and strategies that combine basic math skills with language development activities. Chapter 6 proposes alternative assessment methods to monitor the progress of LEP students, who often cannot be fairly evaluated with the same criteria as mainstream students. Chapter 7 offers suggestions for involving language minority parents in their children's education. Each of these chaptes contains some equivalent exercises in Spanish and a list of resources. Chapter 8 provides more general resources: organizations and institutions serving linguistic and cultural minorities, teacher training materials, legal framework for serving LEP students, selected English-as-a-second-language software, on-line resources for teachers and students, comprehensive regional assistance centers, desegregation assistance centers, and research centers. Chapter 9 contains 14 articles of interest. (TD)

ED 427 918

Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit

for Primary Teachers

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT)
Region IV Comprehensive Center at
Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics

RC 021815

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Help!
They Don't Speak English
Starter Kit

for Primary Teachers

A resource guide for educators of
limited English proficient migrant students,
grades Pre-K - 6

Third Edition, 1998

Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT)
Region IV Comprehensive Center at AEL
Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics

The Comprehensive Centers work primarily with states, local education agencies (LEAs), tribes, schools, and other recipients of funds under the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA). Priority for services is given to high poverty schools and districts, Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), and IASA recipients implementing schoolwide programs.

This project was a collaborative effort of the Region IV Comprehensive Center and the Region XIV Comprehensive Center. **Region IV** serves Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. **Region XIV** serves Florida, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

Region IV Comprehensive Center

Located at AEL, Inc.

Pamela Buckley, Director

AEL • Arlington

1700 North Moore Street, Suite 1275

Arlington, VA 22209

703-276-0200

703-276-0266 (fax)

http://www.ael.org/cac/

AEL

Post Office Box 1348

Charleston, West Virginia 25325-1348

304/347-0400

800/624-9120

304-347-0487 (fax)

aelinfo@ael.org

Region XIV Comprehensive Center

Located at Educational Testing Service

Trudy Hensley, Director

1979 Lakeside Parkway, Suite 400

Tucker, Georgia 30084

800-241-3865

770-723-7443 (fax)

www.ets.org/ccxiv

This publication is based on work sponsored wholly or in part by the U. S. Department of Education, under grant numbers S283A50018 and S283A50007. Its contents do not necessarily reflect the views of the Department or any other agency of the U. S. Government.

AEL is an Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action Employer.

Acknowledgments

The publication of this edition of *Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit* was a joint effort of the Region IV and Region XIV Comprehensive Centers and their subcontractors, ESCORT and the Center for Applied Linguistics. Staff spent a significant amount of professional and personal time formulating ideas, researching, organizing, writing, and editing.

We are indebted to the following individuals for their work in putting this kit together:

- Maria Derrick-Mescua, Center for Applied Linguistics and Region XIV
- Allene G. Grognet, Center for Applied Linguistics and Region XIV
- Marvin Rodriguez, Region IV Comprehensive Center
- Huong-Mai Tran, MAITRAN Associates
- Pamela Wrigley, ESCORT

The kit can be used by educators throughout the country for all limited English proficient (LEP) migrant children.

Additional copies can be obtained from

The Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT)
Bugbee Hall - Room 305
Oneonta, New York 13820
1-800-451-8058

Help! Kit
Table of Contents

Introduction vii

1. Migrant Students, Schools, and Culture 1

2. Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the Mainstream Classroom 19

3. Promoting Literacy (By Any Means Necessary) 37

4. English in the Content Areas 59

5. Promoting Mathematics (By Any and All Means) 81

6. Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding? 99

7. Fostering Home-School Partnerships 119

8. Technical Assistance and Resources 135

9. Articles of Interest 145

Introduction to the Help! Kit

The first *Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit* was produced in 1989 by a task force of Virginia migrant educators who were getting an increasing number of requests from classroom teachers for information about and assistance with their limited English proficient (LEP) students. The *Help! Kit* has proved to be an excellent resource for teachers who are seeking ideas for recommended teaching strategies, lesson plans, and materials. This newly revised manual retains the original focus of providing helpful information to busy mainstream teachers who are seeking practical advice on how they can more effectively include, instruct, and nurture LEP students. It is important to emphasize that most of the strategies promoted here are recommended strategies for **all** students, not just LEP students.

The *Help! Kit* is designed to

- Provide mainstream teachers with teaching strategies and materials that benefit all students—particularly LEP students.
- Provide cultural information to help teachers better understand and appreciate language-minority students and their families.
- Introduce strategies to assist teachers with improving the reading and writing abilities of LEP students.
- Introduce math exercises and strategies that combine learning basic math skills with language development activities.
- Offer suggestions for how to encourage language minority parents to play an active role in their children's education.
- Propose alternative methods to monitor the progress of and evaluate LEP students, who often cannot be fairly measured with the same criteria as mainstream students.
- Provide a wealth of resources and references teachers can use to pursue more fully areas of interest covered in the *Help! Kit.*

The *Help! Kit* is divided into nine chapters. Resources related to the topics covered in a chapter can be found at the end of the chapter. The last chapter contains selected articles of interest for teachers who wish to pursue relevant and timely topics in a more in-depth way. As you make your way through the *Help! Kit,* keep reminding yourself that

"**limited English proficient**"
does **not** mean
"limited Thinking proficient"!

1

Migrant Students, Schools, and Culture

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

1. Cultural Differences

Traditions, family values, and individuals themselves vary greatly. Differences should not be interpreted as deficiencies nor cultures contrasted so as to imply that one is better than another. In trying to avoid culture-specific lists of behaviors—which can be interpreted as stereotyping—the following insights apply to students from many cultures. Students who have limited proficiency in English may or may not display the following behaviors:

- Some students are not accustomed to looking directly at an authority figure or an older person. They may feel more comfortable looking down or away. This is a sign of respect in some cultures.
- Many students who are limited in English refrain from asking for help and will not answer voluntarily. They may smile or nod, seeming to indicate that they understand what is being said, when in reality they do not. Make eye contact and smile, go over to the student's desk to offer individual coaching and questioning, and assign the student a peer tutor (selecting someone who really wants to take on that responsibility). If the tutor knows the student's native language, so much the better.
- Some students may be apprehensive about speaking out in a group, either because the teacher—who is seen as a respected "elder"—is present, or because they may not have a specifically meaningful thing to say. Silence may—in some students' cultures—be a sign of respect rather than a sign of an inability or a refusal to participate. Many students have experienced teacher-centered classrooms in their native countries and are not comfortable with being asked to take an active role.
- Due to cultural background, some students may not be accustomed to physical education activities and may resist participating at first.
- Cultures perceive personal space differently. Comfortably close in one culture may be perceived as an invasion of space or an aggressive posture in another. Allow time and provide opportunities for adjustment to these differences—for both LEP students and other students in your classroom.
- Many LEP students prefer to work cooperatively on assigned tasks. Others may prefer to work individually. What may look like cheating to a teacher is actually a culturally acquired learning style—an attempt to "mimic," see, or "model" what has to be done. This is an attempt to participate in the learning process, not do the wrong thing.
- Cultural groups have differing attitudes toward the importance of time and being on time. Students may arrive at school late on a consistent basis. Some students may be absent quite frequently due to activities that the family finds more important than school, e.g., babysitting younger children or working. This does not mean that they don't value education. It is simply an attempt to survive economically and to adapt to the mandatory educational system of the United States (not the case in many other countries). They also need time to adjust to the fact that there may be legal consequences for parents who don't send their children to school regularly (an entirely new expectation for them). Use an interpreter if necessary to inform parents of these expectations and educational policies.
- Misunderstandings due to communication problems or cultural differences are quite common. Practice patience and understanding as these students adjust to new situations. Use an interpreter to address abstract or complex behaviors or situations. Recognize that in the transitional second-language acquisition and acculturation period, unintentional "mistakes" will be made, especially as students first transfer what they know as acceptable behaviors from their own culture to the U.S. classroom or school.

2. Four Stages of Acculturation

The challenge of learning a new language and the culture that goes with it is one that all LEP students face. They require a period of adjustment to the new and baffling ways of saying and doing things that they encounter every day. Four successive stages that each student will pass through on the road to acculturation have been identified:

1. **Euphoria**. During this initial phase the students will experience a period of excitement over the newness of the surroundings.

2. **Culture Shock**. This term refers to phenomena ranging from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis. Culture shock is associated with the learner's feelings of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness. Persons undergoing culture shock view their new world with resentment and alternate between being angry at others for not understanding them and being filled with self-pity.

3. **Anomie**. This is a stage of gradual—and at first tentative and vacillating—recovery. This stage is typified by what is called "culture stress": some problems of acculturation are solved while others continue for some time. As individuals begin to accept the differences in thinking and feeling that surround them, they slowly become more empathic with other persons in the second culture. Anomie might be described as a feeling of homelessness, where one feels neither bound firmly to one's native culture nor fully adapted to the second culture.

4. **Assimilation or Adaptation**. This fourth stage represents near or full recovery as shown by acceptance of the new culture and self-confidence in the "new" person who has developed in this culture.

Excerpted from *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, H. Douglas Brown, 1994, Prentice Hall Regents, 1-800-223-1360.

3. Learning the Students' Names

The first order of business is to make sure that you know how to pronounce a student's name. The easiest way is to ask the student what his or her name is—listen carefully and repeat it until you've gotten it. If they prefer a nickname, that's fine, but it should be of their choosing. Getting the name right seems like a small thing, but remember what it feels like to you when someone mispronounces or misspells your name. It's important that the teacher model the correct name for the other students, just as she should help the LEP student to learn how to pronounce names in English.

4. Characteristics of Migrant Students and Parents

Students

Migrant students are students who move with their families as many as two or three times each school year. Their parents are usually farm workers who are compelled to move frequently in order to harvest and/or process seasonal crops. A family who spends the winter in Florida picking oranges begins to move north in the spring to pick peaches in Georgia and then to New York in the fall to pick apples. Once the apples are picked and the cold weather begins, the migrant family heads back to Florida until the following spring, when the cycle begins again.

This means that migrant students—who are primarily of Mexican, Central American, or Puerto Rican origin—will move **through** your school without ever finishing a grade, and may or may not come back the following year after encounters with other schools. These students—whose English proficiency is often limited—face the challenge of adapting to a new school, new teachers, and new classmates many times each year. It is essential to find out what each student knows both from schooling in the home country and schooling in the United States. In this way, you can contribute in a meaningful way to maintaining the educational continuity that is vital for these students to succeed.

Parents

The parents of migrant students work very hard, make little money, and often live in substandard housing. They tend to come from rural areas of their native countries and often have a marginal level of education because they had to begin working at an young age. The vast majority of migrant parents speak Spanish, while some speak an indigenous language or Haitian Creole.

They know little about schooling and the requirements that your school system may have. Find out about these parents and communicate with them. You will probably need to ask a bilingual person to help you know what language is used in the home, and what the parents know about the schools. The bilingual person may be an ESL teacher or aide, a migrant education specialist, or a volunteer. With the help of a bilingual person, you can either send notes home or call in order to maintain contact with them. Remember, migrant parents want what's best for their children, and you should keep them informed and elicit their support. (See Chapter 7, "Fostering Home-School Partnerships," for more in-depth information.)

5. Home Language

In the homes of most migrant children, the principal language is Spanish. On occasion, the family members communicate using an indigenous language (Mixteco, Kanjobal), although they often know Spanish as well. This is important because you cannot assume that a Mexican or Central American student who enters school will be fluent in Spanish. Find out the language(s) used in the home and the child's schooling history to determine how much Spanish the student knows.

In the migrant community, the parents—as a rule—have limited proficiency in English. Their literacy level in Spanish may also be quite limited. They often rely on their children who have learned English in U.S. schools to translate for them—thus placing their children in adult roles and situations very early. Generally speaking, the children who have lived in the United States the longest are the ones who use the most English, although their Spanish remains essential as a means to converse with their parents and older relatives.

"My family and I still do things together here; they are just different things from what we did in Mexico. When we first moved here, we all worked together. We worked in the cebollitas (green onion) fields. We worked as a family because it's faster. We helped each other. One person pulls the onion out of the ground, the other person shakes it, another cleans it, and then one of us ties them up together. I think doing things working together is important. It makes our family stronger. Sometimes we stay home and I help my father work on our car. We try to eat dinner together, and when my parents aren't working too late, we go to church together.

My parents don't think I should work in the fields when I get older. They tell me that I shouldn't lose a career like a lot of people in the fields. They've also told me that some people get sick because of the work they do in the fields. I think they tell me these things for my well-being, so that I'll study and finish high school."

Victor Machuca—a migrant student—talks about his family. (*Voices from the Fields*, S. Beth Atkin, p. 50)

6. Do You Have Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students?

Most limited English proficient students speak another language in their homes. If you've ever studied a foreign language, you surely remember what a painstaking discovery process it is. Keep in mind that it generally takes from **5-10 years** for a second language learner to perform like a native speaker **academically**. Usually, the younger the student, the sooner he or she will "catch up." Be patient with yourself and your students. Maintain high yet realistic expectations, and remind yourself frequently that "limited English proficient" *does not* mean "limited Thinking proficient."

Here are some basic suggestions for working effectively with LEP students:

1. Be warm and welcoming. Speak clearly and simply; using gestures when possible.
2. Assign buddies and peer tutors to LEP student (bilingual ones when possible). Be sure to include the child in all class activities.
3. Encourage the student to share his/her language and culture with you and your class. Don't tell LEP children that they shouldn't use their native language; this negatively affects their sense of identity and they may become ashamed of their first language. We want them to grow up knowing and valuing two languages (at least!), not just English.
4. Focus attention on key vocabulary. Use pictures, charts, graphs, and stories to teach vocabulary in context.
5. Keep talking to the student. It is normal for him/her to experience a "silent period" that can last for days, weeks, or even months. If a child in the early stages of learning English is reluctant to speak in English and shows clear signs of anxiety, do not force production.
6. Arrange for the student to receive intensive help with English whenever possible.
7. Instead of using textbooks with LEP students, try making use of your school library. Almost any topic or subject area you're teaching is contained in a children's book that generally has more pictures and simplified English. Many textbooks are available in Spanish editions.
8. Use a grading system that shows progress, but does not unfairly compare your LEP student with his/her peers' performance. Standardized tests are usually not a valid measure of an LEP student's performance; these test scores should not be used for placement purposes.
9. Many LEP students have either repeated a grade or have been placed in lower grades in the erroneous belief that they will learn English more quickly. Keep these students at grade level, while modifying and adapting their assignments, and offer additional help with English as frequently as possible.

7. Will the LEP Student Understand My Classroom Rules and Follow Directions?

LEP students will follow your classroom rules very much as other students do. Indeed, the LEP students should learn your classroom management system as soon as possible; otherwise, potential discipline problems may arise such as unruly behavior, classmate ridicule, and feelings of resentment. Although the first weeks may be confusing, the LEP student should understand your expectations from the very beginning.

Displaying charts, graphs, and reward systems will assist in communicating your expectations. Illustrate with symbols or pictures if there is any doubt about the difficulty of the language level.

Demonstrate consistency, concern, and control. These may be conveyed nonverbally, and an alert student will recognize classroom routines and expectations, like checking homework or going to the office for a tardy slip, very early in the school year. The LEP student's understanding of common classroom rewards such as "stickers," "outside," "treats," and "grade" are proof that the LEP student knows what is happening in the classroom. He or she must therefore be held to the same standards of appropriate behavior as the other students, and be rewarded or punished accordingly. Moreover, the other students need to see that the LEP student is treated as an equal.

At the beginning, LEP students will attempt to follow verbal directions while actually observing modeled behavior. So, while speaking about a math problem in the text, for example, point to someone who has his or her math book open; hold up a ruler when telling the students to use a ruler for their work; when students are coloring maps for social studies, have a student show the LEP student his box of crayons, point to the map and nod "yes."

While others are doing seat work, the LEP student may copy from the board or a book, practice using appropriate worksheets, work quietly with a peer, listen to tapes, work on a computer, or illustrate a topic.

Design a list of commonly used "directional" words such as circle, write, draw, cut, read, fix, copy, underline, add, subtract. Have the LEP student find these "action" words in a picture dictionary with a buddy or alone. Then have the student illustrate these words with symbols or translate them into the native language. The student may keep these words in the front of a notebook, on the desk, or in a pencil case. They will help the LEP student become an independent learner, capable of being resourceful and occupied when you are not available to help. Underline or circle these terms on the board, on worksheets, or in consumable texts. When the student recognizes these words, you can expect him or her to complete the assigned tasks independently.

8. Spanish - Español

Common Expressions

Hola	Hello
Por Favor	Please
Buenos Días	Good Morning
Muchas Gracias	Many thanks
¿Cómo Estás?	How are you?
Bien	Good, fine
Me Llamo	My name is
¡Muy Bien!	Very good!
¿Cómo Te Llamas?	What's your name?
Adiós	Goodbye
¿Dónde Está?	Where is?
Hasta Mañana	See you tomorrow
¿Comprendes?	Do you understand?
Si, Comprendo	Yes, I understand
No, No Comprendo	No, I don't understand

Classroom Expressions

El Maestro, La Maestra	Teacher
El Papel	Paper
La Ventana	Window
La Puerta	Door
La Pluma	Pen
Las Tijeras	Scissors
El Autobús	Bus
El Lápiz	Pencil
La Pizarra	Chalkboard
La Bandera	Flag
La Silla	Chair
La Tiza	Chalk
La Regla	Ruler
La Mesa	Table
El Teléfono	Telephone
El Baño	Bathroom
Los Creyones	Crayons
El Agua	Water

Commands

Escucha	Listen
Mira	Look
Dame	Give me
Levántate	Get up
Vamos Afuera	Let's go outside
Siéntate	Sit down
Silencio	Be quiet
Quita, Deja	Stop, quit it

Es La Hora De	(It's time to:)
Dormir	To sleep
Jugar	To play
Trabajar	To work
Leer	To read
Hablar	To speak
Escribir	To write
Dibujar	To draw
Comer	To eat

Colors

Rojo	red
Amarillo	yellow
Negro	black
Café	brown
Verde	green
Azul	blue
Blanco	white

Days of the Week

Lunes-Monday
Martes-Tuesday
Miércoles-Wednesday
Jueves-Thursday
Viernes-Friday
Sábado-Saturday
Domingo-Sunday

Months

Enero-January	Julio-July
Febrero-February	Agosto-August
Marzo-March	Septiembre-September
Abril-April	Octubre-October
Mayo-May	Noviembre-November
Junio-June	Diciembre-December

Numbers

1-Uno	10-Diez
2-Dos	11-Once
3-Tres	12-Doce
4-Cuatro	13-Trece
5-Cinco	14-Catorce
6-Seis	
7-Siete	
8-Ocho	
9-Nueve	

9. Identifying and Placing Limited English Proficient Students

Why should you identify limited English proficient students?

You should identify language minority migrant students who need ESL instruction, or those who will be reasonably expected to have difficulty in the regular classroom due to limited English proficiency, because failure to do so will jeopardize their future in school.

How can you assess English language proficiency?

There are several oral language proficiency tests that will help you determine if your students are non-English speaking, limited English speaking, or fluent English speaking. Valid and reliable assessment instruments are

1. BINL (Basic Inventory of Natural Language). Checkpoint Systems, 1558 N. Waterman, Suite C, San Bernardino, CA 92404
2. IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Test. Ballard and Tighe, Inc., 580 Atlas St., Brea, CA 92621, 1-800-321-4332
3. LAS (Language Assessment Scales). CTB/McGraw Hill, Del Monte Research Park, 2500 Garden Road, Monterey, CA 93940, 1-800-538-9547

What else should you know about the student?

Important factors in gauging the student's ability are age, previous education in native country, previous education in the United States, and proficiency in the home language.

What should you consider when placing a student?

Remember that "limited English proficient" does not mean "limited Thinking proficient." A 10-year-old student may speak very little English, but he/she may also have the experience, interests, and maturity of a fourth grader. He/she may be even further ahead on some subjects than U.S. fourth graders. When placing students, you should consider the following:

Student factors

- The extent and continuity of previous education
- Language proficiency in English
- Language proficiency in home language
- Degree of home support for second language learning

Teacher factors

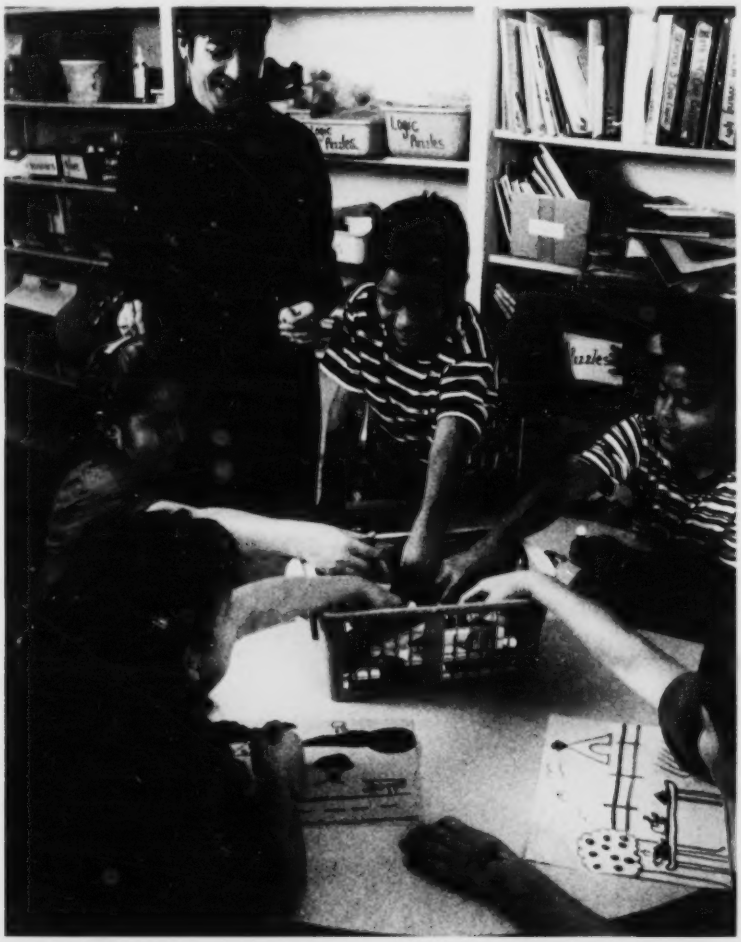
- Knowledge of the language acquisition process
- Cross-cultural skills
- Flexibility in teaching and modifying lessons and assessments
- Empathy for the LEP migrant student

How do you determine appropriate placement for LEP students?

You will need a wide variety of information to make an informed decision (see p. 10). Generally, physical education, art, music, science, and math teachers model, act out, gesture, show diagrams, do experiments, or ask other students to show what is expected of the class. These subjects are good for LEP students to take with peers. For reading, writing, or social studies, you might consider using bilingual aides, a sheltered class, a pull-out class, or in a combined grade level—say 3,4, and 5—placing students at a lower level. These are the most "language-laden" classes, and are apt to place a burden on students until they can gain more proficiency in English.

Student/Home Language Survey

Most often when a student arrives in school a student or home language survey is completed to determine if the child speaks another language in the home. Attached are two such surveys, one in English, and one in Spanish.



Student Language Survey

Student's Name _____ Date _____

School _____ Grade _____

Teacher _____

Circle the best answer to each question.

1. Was the first language you learned English? Yes No

2. Can you speak a language other than English? Yes No
   If yes, what language?

3. Which language do you use most often when you speak to your friends? Other English
   (Specify: _____)

4. Which language do you use most often when you speak to your parents? Other English
   (Specify: _____)

Adapted from *The Identification and Assessment of Language Minority Students: a Handbook for Educators*, Hamayan et al., 1985. Illinois Resource Center, Arlington Heights, Illinois.

Encuesta Del Idioma

Nombre del/de la estudiante _____ Fecha _____

Escuela _____ Grado _____

Maestro/a _____

Indica la mejor respuesta para cada pregunta.

1. ¿Fue español el primer idioma que aprendiste?

   Sí No

2. ¿ Puedes hablar otros idiomas aparte del inglés y español?

   Sí No

   Si respondiste que sí, ¿cuáles otros idiomas puedes hablar?

3. ¿Cuál (es) idioma(s) usas cuando hablas con tus amigos?

   Español Inglés Otro _____

4. ¿Cuál (es) idioma(s) usas cuando hablas con tus padres o familiares?

   Español Inglés Otro _____

Adapted from *The Identification and Assessment of Language Minority Students: a Handbook for Educators*, Hamayan et al., 1985. Illinois Resource Center, Arlington Heights, Illinois.

Language Minority Student Information Sheet

Student's Name _____ Age _____ Grade _____
School _____ Academic Year _____

1. What language do you speak most often at home?

2. What language do you speak most often with your friends?

3. How many years have you been in school in your native country?
   in the United States?

4. What grade were you in at the last school you attended?
   What is the name of the last school you attended?

5. Can you read in Spanish (your native language)?
   Is your reading ability: Excellent _____ Good _____ Fair _____ Very Limited _____?

6. Can you write in Spanish (your native language)?
   Is your writing ability: Excellent _____ Good _____ Fair _____ Very Limited _____?

7. Do you think that you need help learning English? Yes _____ No _____
   If yes, in which areas do you need the most help?
   Speaking
   Listening
   Reading
   Writing

Comments _____
_____
_____

10. Grade Retention: A Common Yet Misguided Option

Description of the Problem

Statistics show that very few migrant students graduate at age 20, and almost none have graduated at older than 20 (Bigler and Ludovina, 1982). Therefore, **any child who is placed two or more years below his/her grade level is virtually doomed to drop out** of school. Even one year, with the added possibility of losing another year because of migrancy or credit loss in the upper grades, may doom a child to dropping out.

Why Are Migrants Older Than Their Peers?

- They look young (are small).
- The family members do not speak English and do not protest the placement.
- The school personnel think that they will learn English faster in lower grades.
- The students have never or rarely attended school.
- The students or parents inform the school of the last grade attended (which may not be equivalent, or may reflect a year of traveling, or sporadic schooling).
- The schools group migrant children with other migrant or LEP students.

The Story of Maria Gutierrez

Sooner or later you will face the dilemma of where to place and whether to promote your migrant students. See if you recognize Maria:

Maria Gutierrez is being retained in kindergarten this year. Last year Maria was very shy and did not talk much throughout the year. Maria had never used scissors (her mother did not allow it) and she did not know all of her alphabet when she entered kindergarten for the first time. At home Maria is a very normal child and in fact she often helps care for her three-year-old brother. With other children, Maria appears to be as alert and active as her playmates and she often emerges as a leader. School tests show her to be of average intelligence, despite the possibility that the testing may be skewed by the fact that Maria is bilingual.

When the teacher informed Maria's parents that she was to be retained, she did not say it was due to English language development or inability to perform the required kindergarten tasks (often uncited reasons for retention); she merely said that Maria was immature, and small for her age and that she felt she would benefit from another year in kindergarten.

What Maria's teacher did not say and probably does not know is that

1. Maria's chances of dropping out of school have just been increased by 50% because she is retained.

2. No research data indicate that retaining Maria will in any way improve her educational performance.

3. The psychological and emotional impacts of retention are real. Estimates indicate that, next to parent divorce, this is the most traumatic of common events that could happen to Maria.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

11. When are Special Education Referrals Appropriate?

Specialists assume that approximately the same proportion of very bright individuals, cognitively limited individuals, language disabled individuals, etc. will be found in any population. Statistically, about 12% of the language minority population in the United States may require special education. In some school districts, language minority students are over-represented in special education, while in other districts there may be an under-representation of handicapped language minority students.

The Prereferral Process

This is a screening and intervention process that involves identifying problems experienced by students in the regular classroom, identifying the source of the problems (student, teacher, curriculum, environment, etc.) and taking steps to resolve the problems in the context of the regular classroom. This process seeks to eliminate unnecessary and inappropriate referrals to special education.

Assessment and Referral

A referral to special education should happen only after all other avenues have been explored, and you conclude that the child's needs cannot be met by the regular education program. Confirmation of a handicap and identification of its specific nature are provided by a comprehensive assessment of the student. **All referrals of LEP students to special education should include the results of tests in the child's native language and in English**, and all records and reports on which the referral is based. **Verify the appropriateness of the school's curriculum, the qualifications and experience of the teacher, and the appropriateness of instruction provided to the student (e.g., continuity, proper sequencing, the teaching of prerequisite skills)**. Document the child's problems across settings and personnel and provide evidence that the child's difficulties are present in both languages, and that he or she has not made satisfactory progress despite having received competent instruction. However, because many of these children are losing or have not fully developed first language skills, it may be difficult to ascertain that the learning difficulty exists across languages. The ESL teacher, bilingual education teacher, and classroom teacher who work regularly with the LEP student will have the most important school-based observations and input in the assessment process. This, coupled with input from parents and guardians, becomes the foundation for the assessment process.

Excerpted from *Referring Language Minority Students to Special Education*, ERIC Digest, P. Olson, 1991, Center for Applied Linguistics.

12. What Specific Activities Will Prepare the LEP Student for School?

Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large LEP population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

In Class

- Class rules: Rewards, enforcement, consequences.
- School conduct.
- Morning rituals: Greetings, calendar work, assignments, collection of money, homework.
- Library conduct: check out, book return.
- Field trips/permission slips.
- Gym: Participation, showers, attire.
- School photographs: Dress, payment.
- Substitutes.
- Seat work/group work.
- Tests, quizzes, reports.
- Grades, report cards, incompletes.
- Treats.
- Free time.
- Teams: Choosing, assigning.
- Standardized testing and exemptions.
- Exams.
- Special projects: Extra credit, double grades.

In School

- Breaks: Bathroom, water, recess.
- Cafeteria routines: Line formation, lunch passes.
- Fire drills.
- Assemblies: Pep rallies, awards, awards ceremonies.
- Contests and competitions.
- Holidays: Festivities, traditions.
- Fund raisers.
- Routine health exams, screening.
- Suspension.
- Guidance counseling.
- Disciplinary methods: In-school suspension.
- Free lunch: Income verification.
- Family life education: Sex education.

After School

- Parent conferences and attendance.
- PTA meetings.
- Proms, dances, special events.
- Field days.
- Clubs, honor societies, sport activities.
- Detention.
- Summer school.

References

Bass, C. (1996). *A Guide for Elementary Teachers.* Prince William Co. Public Schools, P.O. Box 389, Manassas, VA 20108

Brown, H. Douglas (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.* Prentice Hall Regents, (1-800-223-1360)

Riddlemoser, N. (1987). *Working with Limited English Proficient Students in the Regular Classroom.* Center for Applied Linguistics, (202) 429-9292

2

Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the Mainstream Classroom

In most school districts, English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual staff and resources are limited. LEP students may be "pulled out" of the mainstream classroom for brief periods of time to receive intensive English instruction, but in reality, the students spend most of the school day in their regular classrooms. Classroom teachers can use many strategies and resources to help LEP students feel welcome and to promote their linguistic and cognitive development.

1. Practices of Successful Teachers of Language Minority Students

1. Rather than relying solely on language to facilitate learning, these teachers use a variety of activities and learning opportunities for students (e.g., visuals, physical activity, and nonverbal cues).

2. When they do use language, they do not rely solely on English, but allow and encourage students to use their native languages as needed to facilitate learning and participation.

3. When these teachers use English, they modify its complexity and content so that students understand and can participate in classroom activities.

4. They also do not rely only on themselves as the sources of knowledge and learning, but encourage interaction among students; bring in older and younger, more proficient and less proficient students from other classes; and involve paraprofessionals and community members in classroom activities.

5. They encourage authentic and meaningful communication and interaction about course content among students, and between themselves and students.

6. They hold high expectations of their students, challenging them to tackle complex concepts and requiring them to think critically, rather than eliciting a preponderance of one-word responses to factual questions that do not require higher order thinking.

7. In content classes, they focus instruction squarely on the content itself, not on English. At the same time, they build English language development into their instruction in all classes, including content classes.

8. They recognize student success overtly and frequently.

2. The Role of Culture in the Classroom

Culture in the classroom should be much more than holidays and food. Using cross-cultural strategies in the classroom helps students from diverse backgrounds begin to understand and value each other's cultural perspectives. This makes them more comfortable in the school environment and thus able to learn more effectively.

Why is it important to be aware of the cultural differences among your students and to incorporate cross-cultural strategies into your classroom? Consider this example of a problem caused by a lack of awareness of cultural differences.

> An ESL teacher whose students recently arrived from the Middle East came to a lesson in the textbook on the use of "need" and "want." The lesson was based on vending machines—"I want a ham sandwich, so I need 3 quarters and a dime." None of the students, however, had ever seen a vending machine or had ever eaten ham, and could not imagine such a food that came out of a machine. The lesson was meaningless for them.

Storytelling

Ask students to tell a story—perhaps a folktale—that is popular in their culture. Allow them to tell it first in their native language, then in English. You might work with them on the English version before they deliver it to the class. Students will develop confidence when allowed to try out a story in their more comfortable language. Their classmates will enjoy figuring out the story and may want to discuss how aspects of the story are similar to those of ones they know.

Show and tell

Ask students to bring in something representative of their culture or country (e.g., a map or flag, clothing, a craft, a holiday decoration). They can tell the class how the object is used, where it came from, how it was made, or why it is important in their culture.

Culture in content areas

Culture is content for every day, not just special days. Use every opportunity you can find to communicate your multicultural perspective. In social studies, supplement your text with materials that show the history and contributions of many peoples. In math and science, take into account other countries' notation systems. Incorporate arts and craft styles from many countries into your fine arts program. Read literature from and about your students' countries of birth.

Misunderstandings

Ask students to think of incidents that involved some kind of cultural misunderstanding and to share them with the class. Did the misunderstanding involve words, body language, rules of time or space, levels of formality, or stereotypes about a culture? Try to use the incidents to help all students see the importance of being flexible in encounters with people from another culture.

Tips for using language minority students as resources in your classroom

Make use of your students' language and cultural knowledge!

Create a supportive environment in the classroom so that the language minority students feel they have a lot to offer and feel comfortable sharing with classmates.

Consider anthropological topics that move beyond geography and general history of students' countries (although these have a role, too). Focus at times on human behavior: family structures, housing arrangements, fuel/food gathering, etc.

Have students bring in traditional handicrafts, artwork, and other locally produced products from their countries.

Incorporate music and drama from the students' countries into your lessons.

Ask students to compare and contrast aspects of American culture with aspects of their own culture.

Since many of your language minority students may have little experience and/or knowledge about their native countries, give them the opportunity to include their parents and relatives as resources for the classroom.

Invite parents to talk about such topics as language, culture, family structure, customs, or agricultural products in their country. Encourage parents to get students involved by bringing in handmade materials, demonstrating food-making processes, or teaching a native dance.

Assign students to conduct oral interviews of family members or community members from their ethnic group to get first-person accounts of, for example, what it was like in Vietnam during the Vietnam War or what life is like for a rug weaver in northern Afghanistan. You can follow the *Foxfire* interviewing model.

Encourage native speakers of other languages to serve as language resources for you and the other students. Your students' multilingual skills can be a real asset to the class. For example, when teaching a unit about agricultural crops, find out how to say *corn, wheat, rice,* and *coffee* in the languages of your students. Are any of the words similar to English? You can use your students as "native informants" if you want to teach an "introduction to language" unit where students are introduced to all the languages spoken in the class.

Have students work on research reports in heterogeneous, cooperative groups so that language minority students serve as resources in each group.

3. Helping LEP Students Adjust to the Classroom

LEP students are faced with the challenge of learning English as well as the school culture. Teachers can help them adjust to their new language and environment in the following ways:

Announce the lesson's objectives and activities

It is important to write the objectives on the board and review them orally before class begins. It is also helpful to place the lesson in the context of its broader theme and preview upcoming lessons.

Write legibly

Teachers need to remember that some students have low levels of literacy or are unaccustomed to the Roman alphabet.

Develop and maintain routines

Routines will help LEP students anticipate what will happen (e.g., types of assignments, ways of giving instructions) without relying solely on language cues.

List and review instructions step by step

Before students begin an activity, teachers should familiarize them with the entire list of instructions. Then, teachers should have students work on each step individually before moving on to the next step. This procedure is ideal for teaching students to solve math and science word problems.

Present frequent summations of the salient points of the lesson

Teachers should (1) try to use visual reviews with lists and charts, (2) paraphrase the salient points where appropriate, and (3) have students provide oral summaries.

Present information in varied ways

By using multiple media in the classroom, teachers reduce reliance on language and place the information in a context that is more comprehensible to the students.

Excerpted from *Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques*, Deborah Short, 1991, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

23

4. Recommended Classroom Strategies

Using a learner-centered approach to teaching provides LEP students with a greater opportunity to interact meaningfully with educational materials as they acquire English and learn subject matter.

Most of the following recommended strategies are promoted as good teaching strategies for all students. This is an important point because teachers don't usually have the time to prepare a separate lesson for their LEP students and/or to work with them regularly on an individual basis.

A. Total Physical Response (TPR)

TPR activities greatly multiply the amount of language input that can be handled by beginning LEP students. Students become ready to talk sooner when they are under no pressure to do so. TPR activities tie comprehension with performance by eliciting whole-body responses. Students build self-confidence along with a wide-ranging passive vocabulary base as they "learn by doing."

TPR activities help the student adjust to school. Teachers can prepare students to understand the behavior required and the instructions they will hear in mainstream classrooms, in the halls, during fire drills, on trips, etc. Teachers can develop their own scripts that provide students with the vocabulary related to everyday situations such as watching TV, using a pay telephone, getting ready for school, etc.

Seven basic steps outline the strategy:

1. **Setting up.** The teacher sets up a situation in which students follow a set of commands using actions, generally with props, to act out a series of events—for example, shopping for groceries, taking the school bus, or preparing a sandwich.

2. **Demonstration.** The teacher demonstrates or has a student demonstrate the series of actions. Students are expected to pay careful attention, but they do not talk or repeat the commands.

3. **Group live action.** The group acts out the series as the teacher gives commands. Usually this step is repeated several times so that students internalize the series thoroughly before they produce it.

4. **Written copy.** The series is put on chart paper or on the blackboard for students to read and copy.

5. **Oral repetition and questions.** After students have made a written copy, they repeat each line after the teacher, taking care with difficult words. They have ample opportunity to ask questions, and the teacher points out particular pronunciation features such as minimal pairs (soap/soup or cheap/sheep).

6. **Student demonstration.** Students are given the opportunity to play the roles of reader of the series and performer of the actions. The teacher checks comprehension and prompts when needed.

7. **Pairs.** Students work in groups of two or three, one telling or reading the series, and the other(s) listening and responding physically. During the group work time, the teacher can work individually with students.

Examples for Early Elementary Classes

First example:

Stand up.
Sit down.
Raise one hand.
Put your hand down.
Raise two hands.
Put your hands down.
Touch your nose.
Touch your ear, etc.

Second example:

Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear

Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, turn around.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, touch the ground.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, read the news.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, shine your shoes.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, go upstairs.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, say your prayers.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, turn out the light.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, say goodnight.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

First example:

Watching TV

1. It's time to watch your favorite show. Turn on the TV.
2. This is the wrong show. You hate this show. Make a terrible face. Change the channel.
3. This show is great! Smile! Sit down in your favorite chair.
4. This part is very funny. Laugh.
5. Now there's a commercial. Get up and get a snack and a drink. Sit down again.
6. The ending is very sad. Cry.
7. The show is over. Turn off the TV.
8. Go to bed.

Second example:

Good Morning

1. It's seven o'clock in the morning.
2. Wake up.
3. Stretch and yawn and rub your eyes.
4. Get up.
5. Do your exercises.
6. Enter the bathroom.
7. Wash your face.
8. Go back to your bedroom.
9. Get dressed.
10. Make the bed.
11. Go to the kitchen.
12. Eat breakfast.
13. Read the newspaper.
14. Go to the bathroom and brush your teeth.
15. Put on your coat.
16. Kiss your family good-bye.
17. Leave the house.

B. Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning has grown in popularity because it has proven to be effective for both academically advanced and lower achieving students. In addition to promoting learning, this system fosters respect and friendship among heterogeneous groups of students. For this reason, cooperative learning offers much to teachers who are trying to involve LEP students in all-English classroom activities. Also, some language minority students come from cultures that encourage cooperative interaction, and they may be more comfortable in an environment of shared learning.

Cooperative learning includes the following basic elements:

Heterogeneous groups of students with assigned roles to perform

Cooperative learning consists of student-centered learning activities completed by students in heterogeneous groups of two to six. Through a shared learning activity, students benefit from observing learning strategies used by their peers. LEP students further benefit from face-to-face verbal interactions, which promote communication that is natural and meaningful. When students work in heterogeneous groups, issues related to the capabilities and status of group members sometimes arise—cooperative learning addresses these issues by assigning roles to each member of the group. Such roles as "set up," "clean up," and "reporter" help the group complete its tasks smoothly. They provide all members with a purpose that is separate from the academic activity and enable them to contribute to the successful completion of the learning task.

Lessons structured for positive interdependence among group members

After establishing student learning groups, teachers must next consider structuring the lessons to create a situation of positive interdependence among the members of the groups. Several strategies encourage students to depend on each other in a positive way for their learning: limiting available materials, which creates the need for sharing; assigning a single task for the group to complete collaboratively; and assigning each student only a certain piece of the total information necessary to complete a task, such as reading only a portion of an assigned chapter or knowing only one step in a complex math problem. Students are made responsible for each other's learning and only through sharing their pieces of information will the group be able to complete the assignment.

Identification and practice of specific social behaviors

The third basic element in cooperative learning classrooms is the social behaviors necessary for success in working cooperatively. These behaviors include sharing, encouraging others, and accepting responsibility for the learning of others. They must be overtly identified by the teacher, practiced in non-threatening situations, and reinforced throughout the school year.

Evaluation through whole-class wrap-up, individual testing, and group recognition

The fourth feature of cooperative learning is evaluation, which can be done at three levels. The success of shared learning activities is judged daily in a wrap-up or processing session. At the end of the cooperative lesson, the entire class reconvenes to report on content learning and group effectiveness in cooperation. The teacher conducts a classwide discussion in which reporters tell what happened in the group activity, successful learning strategies are shared, and students form generalizations or link learning to previously developed concepts.

Even though students work collaboratively and become responsible for each other's learning, individuals are still held accountable for their own academic achievement. The scores students receive on tests form the basis of class grades, as they do in a traditional classroom.

Examples for Early Elementary Classes

First example:

Numbered Heads Together

This is a simple structure, consisting of four steps:

1. Students number off.
2. Teacher announces a question and a time limit.
3. Students put their heads together to come up with the answer.
4. Teacher calls a number, calls on a student with that number, and recognizes the correct answer.

Second example:

Pairs-Check

Pairs-Check is one way of ensuring that there will be helping among students and that all students will stay on task when they are asked to complete mastery-oriented worksheets. The instructions on a math worksheet might read as follows:

> "You are to work in pairs in your teams. Person one in the pair is to do the first problem, while person two acts as a coach. Coaches, if you agree that person one has done the problem correctly, give him or her some praise, then switch roles. When you have both finished the first two problems, do not continue. You need to first check with the other pair. If you don't agree on the first two problems, figure out what went wrong. When both pairs agree on the first two problems, give a team handshake, and then proceed to the next two problems. Remember to switch roles after each problem. Person one does the odd-numbered problems; person two the even-numbered problems. After every two problems, check with the other pair."

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

Roundrobin

Roundrobin and Roundtable (Kagan, 1989) are simple cooperative learning techniques that can be used to encourage participation among all group members, especially LEP students. Teachers present a category to students in cooperative learning groups, and students take turns around the group naming items to fit the category. The activity is called Roundrobin when the students give answers orally. When they pass a sheet of paper and write their answers, the activity is called Roundtable.

Good topics for Roundrobin activities are those that have enough components to go at least three times around the circle with ease. Therefore, with cooperative groups of four or five students, the categories should have 12 to 15 easy answers. Topics to use for teaching and practicing Roundrobin could include

- Things that are green.
- Things found in a city.
- Words beginning with A.

Students are usually given a time limit, such as one or two minutes, to list as many items as they can. However, each student speaks in turn so that no one student dominates the list. Roundrobin and Roundtable often help pupils concentrate on efficiency and strategies for recall. During the wrap-up, teachers can ask the most successful team to share strategies that helped them compile their list. Other learning groups will be able to try those strategies in their next round. Roundrobin or Roundtable topics are limited only by the imagination. Here are a few sample categories for various content areas. They are ordered here from simplest (or useful in lower grades) to most advanced (or useful at higher grade levels).

(continued)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes
(continued)

Geography and Social Studies

- Places that are cold
- Inventions
- State capitals
- Rivers of the U.S.
- Countries that grow rice
- Rules of England
- Lands where Spanish is spoken

Language Arts and Literature

- Compound words
- Past tense verbs
- Homonyms
- Characters in Dr. Seuss books
- Metaphors
- Fictitious detectives
- Works of Shakespeare

Science

- Things made of glass
- Parts of the body
- Metals
- Elements weighing more than oxygen
- Invertebrates
- Essential vitamins and minerals
- NASA inventions

Math

- Fractions
- Pairs of numbers whose sum is 23
- Multiples of 12
- Degrees in an acute angle
- Prime numbers
- Important mathematicians
- Formulas for finding volume

Jigsaw activities

Jigsaw activities (Slavin, 1981; Kagan, 1989) are designed to emphasize positive interdependence among students. A jigsaw lesson is created by dividing information to be mastered into several pieces and assigning each member of the cooperative group responsibility for one of those pieces.

For example, in a study of planets, one student would be responsible for finding out the mass and major chemical elements on each planet; another would be responsible for finding distances from the sun and between planets and their orbits; a third student would find out the origin of planet names; and the fourth would research satellites. After reading the appropriate chapter in the textbook, students become experts on that one aspect of their study unit. In class, the following day, students meet with other classmates who had the same assignment in expert groups. These groups review, clarify, and enhance their understanding of the topic before returning to their cooperative teams. Once students return, they are responsible for "teaching" the information to their teammates and adding their piece to the jigsaw puzzle.

Student team members' expertise can be developed in a number of ways. In the method described above, all students read the same material — a chapter in the text — but each focuses on a specific area. Expertise can also be formed by giving individual students a part of the total information to share with the others. This second method may involve only a short reading assignment and may be more useful for LEP students or native English speakers who are at low reading levels.

For example, if the learning task were to punctuate a group of sentences, each student on the team could be given a few of the rules for punctuation. The team would have to share their rules with each other in order to complete the task. This same kind of division could be made of steps in a sequence or clues to a mystery. By dividing the information into a jigsaw activity, the teacher ensures that students become positively interdependent on each other to complete the assignment. Each individual feels important because he or she holds a key to the solution.

and the other group members actively encourage him or her to share it.

The following lesson is an example of a jigsaw activity. It consists of a logic problem with different clues given to each group member. It is geared for a second- or third-grade level.

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Logic Problem I

Logic problems can easily be divided into jigsaw activities by separating the various pieces of information and clues. The following logic problem is first presented as a whole, then split into a jigsaw activity.

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A and each was in a different subject: either math, English, or history. The subject in which each student got the A is his or her favorite subject. From the clues below, tell which subject is each student's favorite.

1. Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.
2. Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.
3. David got a D in history.

Student 1

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
Each student received only one A.
Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.

Student 2

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
The subject in which each student got an A is his or her favorite subject.
Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.

Student 3

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
Problem: Which subject is the favorite of each student?

Student 4

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
The A's were only in math, English, and history.
David got a D in history.

Solution:

Luc got an A in math (clue 2).
Marie got an A in history (clues 1 and 3).
David got an A in English (process of elimination).

C. Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach has a number of features that enhance whole language learning for LEP students. Students learn that what they say is important enough to be written down; they learn how language is encoded by watching as their oral language is put into print; and they use familiar language—their own—in follow-up activities.

Suggested steps:

1. The "experience" to be written about may be a drawing, something the student brought from home, a group experience planned by the teacher (field trip, science experiment, party, etc.), or simply a topic to discuss.

2. The student is asked to tell about his/her experience. Beginning students might draw a picture of the experience and then label it with help from the teacher, aide, or volunteer.

3. The student then dictates his or her story or experience to the teacher, aide, volunteer, or to another student. The writer copies down the story exactly as it is dictated. (Do not correct the student's grammar while the story is being written down.)

4. The teacher reads the story back, pointing to the words, with the student reading along. With young children at the very beginning levels, it may be necessary to read back each sentence as it is dictated.

5. The student reads the story silently and/or aloud to other students or to the teacher.

6. The experience stories are saved and can be used for instruction in all types of reading skills.

7. When students are ready, they can begin to write their own experience stories. A good way to introduce this is to discuss the experience, write a group experience story, and then have students write their own stories.

8. Students can rewrite their own previous stories as their language development progresses, and then illustrate them to make books for other students to read.

Follow-up activities

Select follow-up activities based on student levels. *Beginning students* might search for certain words and underline them, read the story in chorus, or participate in an oral cloze activity.

Intermediate students might unscramble sentences, choose words and make cards for a word bank, or match sentence strips to sequenced pictures from a story.

Duplicate the story and have students use small copies for reading, selecting, and practicing vocabulary words. Children may enjoy making covers for their own copies of the story, illustrating the pages, and taking the books home to read to family members.

For students who are in content-area classes but have limited literacy skills, the Language Experience Approach could be a strategy that an ESL teacher or other support staff could use to have the students dictate the main points of a lesson. This approach would not only help students focus on comprehension and retention of important subject matter, but would help improve their reading and writing abilities as well.

D. Dialogue Journals

A dialogue journal is a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly (daily, weekly, etc., depending on the educational setting) over a semester, school year, or course. Students write as much as they choose and the teacher writes back regularly, responding to students' questions and comments, introducing new topics, or asking questions. The teacher is a participant in an ongoing written conversation with the student, rather than an evaluator who corrects or comments on the student's writing.

Many teachers of LEP students have found dialogue journals—interactive writing on an individual basis—to be a crucial part of their classes. Dialogue journals not only open a new channel of communication, but they also provide another context for language and literacy development. Students have the opportunity to use English in a non-threatening atmosphere, while interacting with someone who is proficient in English. Because the interaction is written, it allows students to use reading and writing in purposeful ways and provides a natural, comfortable bridge to other kinds of writing.

Tips for using dialogue journals

1. Make sure each student has a notebook to use in journal writing.

2. How you begin a dialogue journal depends on the age and literacy development of your students. Younger students can draw a picture and write about it. You can help older students get started by writing the first entry for their response. Something special about yourself usually elicits a good response.

3. Be sure students know that they can write about anything in their journals, that they won't be graded, and that nobody but you will read them.

4. Students can write during class at a specified time, when they have free time, or outside of class.

5. Be sure to respond to each journal entry. It is better that students write once or twice a week, and for you to respond each time, than writing every day and getting only one response a week. With pre-literate students, you must write your response while they are watching, sounding it out as you write, and point to the words as you reread your response.

6. Never correct student entries. You may ask about meaning when you don't understand something, but don't make comments such as "not clear" or "not enough detail." If a student uses an incorrect form, you may provide the correct form if your response seems natural to do so.

7. Try not to dominate the "conversation." Let the student initiate topics. Too many questions in your responses will result in less language produced by the student, not more.

8. The more often students write and the longer they continue writing, the greater the benefits of journal writing.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Excerpt from a dialogue journal between a teacher and Claudia, a sixth grade student from El Salvador:

Claudia: The new teacher of helper in our class is very good. I like her, don't you like her? Today she helped me and us a lot. But Tony didn't want help. Why doesn't Tony want us to help him?

I will try & bring my lunch every day from now on because the turkey stew & other lunches put me sick. I hate them. When I am very hungry I have to eat them but when I get to my house my stomach hurts & I am sick for 3 days. Can't the teachers protest or say something about the food that they give here?

What do you feed chickens here? We have a hen that layd an egg.

Teacher: The lunches are not that bad! I've eaten them sometimes. You are wise to bring your own lunch. That is usually what I do too. You have such good food at home that nothing served here could taste so good!

Tony is embarrassed. He wants help, but he does not want anyone to know that he needs it. Offer to help him and if he says "no," then leave him alone.

Chickens will eat scraps of bread, wheat seeds, water, and some insects.

E. Games

Games are a fun and effective way to promote language learning. Action games such as "Simon Says" and "Duck, Duck, Goose," along with finger games such as "Where is Thumbkin?" and "The Itsy Bitsy Spider," are appropriate for early elementary students. Index-card games based on categories and "Twenty Questions" or "What's My Line?" are examples of games that are suitable for upper elementary students. Games are especially helpful when the repetition of words or concepts necessary to increase a student's knowledge of vocabulary and concepts that require memorization. It is recommended that competition be downplayed for most games, that the rules be few, and that they be clearly explained and demonstrated before play is begun.

Examples for Early Elementary Classes

First example:

Who Took the Cookie?

Group: Who took the cookie from the cookie jar? (Children clap in rhythm)

Leader: Bobbie took the cookie from the cookie jar.

Bobbie: Who, me?

Group: Yes, you.

Bobbie: Couldn't be.

Group: Then who?

Bobbie: Maria took the cookie from the cookie jar.

Maria: Who, me? (Etc.)

Second examle:

Five Little Monkeys (Finger Play)

Five little monkeys, sitting in a tree (hold up hand with fingers spread apart)

Teasing Mr. Alligator: "Can't catch me!" (wag pointing finger back and forth)

Along came Mr. Alligator, hungry as can be (rub tummy)

(Put hands together like an alligator mouth and snap shut quickly)

Four little monkeys, sitting in a tree . . . etc.

Three little monkeys, sitting in a tree . . . etc.

Two little monkeys, sitting in a tree . . . etc.

One little monkey, sitting in a tree . . . etc. (clap hands)

"Ooops, you missed!"

Third example:

A La Rueda De San Miguel

A la rueda de San Miguel
todos traen su caja de miel.
A lo maduro, a lo maduro,
que se voltee (student's name) de burro.

The children form a circle and join hands. After each verse, someone puts a student's name in the last line, e.g., "Que se voltee **Maria** de burro." **Maria** then has to turn and face away from the circle and join hands again. The game continues until everyone is turned facing away from the center of the circle. At the end, while still holding hands, everyone backs toward the middle of the circle and attempts to sit down.

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

First example:

Concentration
(with index cards)

Prepare index cards: one set with pictures of related items such as fruits, clothing, animals, etc. and a matching set with words that correspond to the pictures.

On the back side of the pictures, write "P."

On the back side of the words, write "W."

Once the students are familiar with the words, turn the cards over and mix them up, and line them up in a grid.

Each student is instructed to turn over one "P" card and one "W" card. If they match, the student keeps them and takes another turn. If they don't match, the student turns them over and the next student has a turn.

Second example:

I'm Going to My Grandmother's House

Students sit in a circle and go in order.

The first person says, "I'm going to my grandmother's house, and I'm going to take an (apple)." (The item chosen must begin with the letter "A.")

The second person says the entire sentence and adds an item beginning with the letter "B."

The third person says the sentence with a "C" item, etc.

If You Want to Know More About These Strategies

1. Resources for Total Physical Response

Nelson, G., & Winters, T. (1980). *ESL Operations: Techniques for Learning While Doing*, Newbury House.

Ramijin, E., & Seely, C. (1988). *Live Action English*, Delta Systems Co., 1-800-323-8270.

2. Resources for Cooperative Learning

Cochran, C. (Summer 1989). *Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the All-English-Medium Classroom: A Cooperative Learning Approach*, Program Information Guide - No. 12, National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.

Enright, D.S., & McCloskey, M.L. (1988). *Integrating English: Developing English Language and Literacy in the Multilingual Classroom*, Addison-Wesley, 1-800-552-2259.

Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R. T., Holubec, E.J., & Roy, P. (1984). *Circles of Learning: Cooperation in the Classroom*, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

Kagan, S. (1989). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers*, 27402 Camino Capistrano, Suite 201, Laguna Niquel, CA 92577, 714-582-3137.

3. Resources for the Language Experience Approach

Rigg, P. (1989). "Language Experience Approach: Reading Naturally." In Rigg, P. & Allen, V. *When They Don't All Speak English*. (p. 65-76) National Council of Teachers of English, 217-328-3870.

4. Resources on Dialogue Journals

Atwell, N. (1987). *In the Middle: Writing, Reading, and Learning with Adolescents*, Heinemann, Boynton/Cook, 1-800-541-2086.

Peyton, J. (1993). "Dialogue Journals: Interactive Writing to Develop Language and Literacy," ERIC/Center for Applied Linguistics, 202-429-9292.

5. Resources for Games

Claire, E. (1988). *ESL Teacher's Activities Kit*, Prentice Hall.

Clark, R. C. (Ed.) (1982). *Index Card Games for ESL*, Pro Lingua Associates.

3

Promoting Literacy (By Any Means Necessary)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

1. The Great Debate

The field of reading has been embroiled in a controversy surrounding the superiority of either a phonetic approach or a whole-word approach to early reading instruction. Most recently a commissioned report on phonics instruction resulted in the publication of *Beginning to Read* (Adams, 1990), which found that while phonics knowledge is essential for children's success with reading and writing, children must also be taught to read for purpose and meaning.

Given the importance of phonics knowledge in early reading, the current debate can no longer be whether this type of instruction is important, but rather which approaches to teaching phonic relationships are most effective. Advocates of whole language suggest that phonics should be taught in the context of reading and writing activities and should not be isolated. Materials such as worksheets and flashcards are considered inappropriate. Instead, the learning of skills emerges naturally from activities in which the class is engaged (Goodman, 1990). Others, however, contest that teaching phonics only through naturally occurring activities in context is not systematic enough and leaves a lot to chance. These writers argue that most children need some direct, systematic, sound-symbol instruction to learn to read (Adams, 1990).

A third position takes a "middle-of-the-road" approach to literacy instruction. This so-called "Combination Approach" (McIntyre & Pressley, 1996) proposes integrating the best strategies from both whole language and explicit approaches. With this combined approach, phonics instruction can include both functional and in-context experiences as well as explicit, systematic instruction. The combined approach also emphasizes the selection of instructional strategies that are most appropriate for individual children.

Excerpted from *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 50, No. 8, May 1997.

2. The Importance of Using a Student's Native Language As a Learning Tool

When a student's native language is used correctly in educational programs, it is of tremendous benefit. It can catalyze and accelerate second language acquisition. When we give students good instruction through their first language, we give them two things:

First, we give them knowledge. This can be subject-matter knowledge or knowledge of the world in general. The knowledge students get in their first language can make second language input more comprehensible. A student at grade level in math, for example, thanks to quality education in his or her first language, will be able to follow a math class taught in the second language much better than a student who is behind in math. The first child will not only get more math, he or she will make more progress in second language acquisition because he or she will get more comprehensible input.

Second, quality education in the primary language helps the student develop literacy in the second language. We can distinguish two kinds of literacy—basic reading ability and problem-solving ability.

1. Basic Literacy

Basic literacy is the ability to read and write. Showing how the first language helps develop basic literacy is a two-step argument: If we learn to read by reading, it will be much easier to learn to read in a language you know, since the print in that language will be more comprehensible. Once you can read, you can read. This ability transfers rapidly to other languages you acquire. If the goal is second language literacy, a rapid means of achieving it is building reading ability in a student's first language.

2. Ability to Use Language to Solve Problems

The second kind of literacy is the ability to use language—oral and written—to solve problems and make yourself smarter. Clearly, this kind of competence also transfers across languages. If you have learned, for example, to read selectively or have learned that revision helps you discover new ideas in one language, you will be able to read selectively and revise your writing in another language. In other words, once you are educated, you are educated.

If these principles are correct, they suggest that quality programs for second language acquirers will have the following characteristics:

- They will supply comprehensible input in English—in the form of good beginning language classes, sheltered subject matter teaching, and a print-rich environment in the second language.

- They will help the student develop literacy in the native language, through free reading and effective language arts programs—literacy that will transfer to the second language.

Excerpted from *Fundamentals of Language Education*, Krashen, S.D., 1992.

The Elements of a Balanced Approach to Reading

Phonological Awareness
- Rhymes
- Alliteration
- Syllable counting

Print Awareness
- Shared books
- Environmental print
- Concept of a word

Alphabetic Awareness
- Recognition of upper- and lower-case alphabet
- Letter/sound mapping
- Alphabetical order

Orthographic Awareness
- Spelling patterns
- Identifying word families
- Decoding skills

Comprehension Strategies
- Story discussion
- Prediction/Foreshadowing
- Main idea

Reading Practice
- Guided reading
- Sustained Silent Reading
- Paired reading

3. Recommendations for Teaching Reading to LEP Students

Approach reading through meaningful text

Let the LEP student practice whole sentences useful for everyday life. Phrases that can be used with other children will interest the LEP student because of the need for them. Start with sentences, then go to individual words for phonics contrasts. Many LEP students have difficulty distinguishing one English sound from another—especially the sounds that don't exist in their native language.

For example, Spanish speaking students will have a particularly hard time with English vocalic contrasts because in Spanish there are only five vowel sounds while English has eleven. Spanish-speaking students may not hear the difference between: bit & bet, boat & bought, or bat & but. Students must be able to hear the vowel distinction before they are expected to produce it.

Read authentic literature, and minimize the use of worksheets

Phonics worksheets are often baffling and anxiety-producing for LEP students because they are processing the sounds through a different language "filter" than their English-speaking peers.

Don't automatically place the student in a low ability group

Good readers can provide better models, stimulation, and help for the LEP students.

Introduce words orally before incorporating them in to a reading lesson

The most effective teaching technique is to "go from the known to the unknown."

Begin with pattern and predictable books

These are excellent for beginning readers of any language.

Teach individual words in context

This way, LEP students can relate new words to meaningful situations.

Don't ask a student to read aloud for purposes of testing comprehension

The danger is that a student may become a word caller and will not concentrate on meaning. LEP students who are forced to read aloud worry about pronunciation and what other classmates' reactions will be. A student who is self-conscious about pronunciation will not think about meaning.

Don't worry about "native-sounding" pronunciation

If the LEP student can be understood without difficulty, then correcting his or her pronunciation is not necessary. As they gain more exposure to English over the years their pronunciation will improve. There is some evidence that a LEP student who begins to study English after about 12 years of age is likely to retain for life some degree of a foreign accent when speaking English.

4. Suggested Resources and Activities to Help Promote Literacy

1.Predictable Books

A. **Fairy Tales** (These are fun to act out using simple props.)

Little Red Riding Hood
Little Red Hen
Goldilocks and the Three Bears
Three Little Pigs

Bilingual Fables (Fabulas Bilingues) such as *Tina the Turtle and Carlos the Rabbit* are available from National Textbook Company (1-800-323-4900).

B. **Children's Literature**

Goodnight Moon - Margaret Wise Brown
Brown Bear, Brown Bear - Bill Martin, Jr.
The Very Hungry Caterpillar - Eric Carle
Green Eggs and Ham - Dr. Seuss
Caps for Sale - Esphyr Slobodkin

C. **Big Books**

In a Dark, Dark Wood
Mrs. Wishy-Washy
One Cold, Wet Night
The Big Toe

2. Songs

Hokey-Pokey...great for teaching body parts
The Mulberry Bush
Ten Little Indians
Old MacDonald Had a Farm
She'll Be Comin' 'Round the Mountain
Three Blind Mice
I'm a Little Teapot
Itsy Bitsy Spider

"Skip to my Lou"
(for beginning consonant sounds)

Who has a word that starts with /k/?
Starts, starts, starts with /k/?
Who has a word that starts with /k/?
Skip to my Lou, my darling!

(Call on or toss a ball to a student who knows a word that starts with /k/. The word is repeated, and used in the song.)

Cat is a word that starts with /k/,
Starts, starts, starts with /k/.
Cat is a word that starts with /k/,
Skip to my Lou, my darling!

(Let's try it as a whole group with /b/)

"Skip to my Lou"
(for ending consonant sounds)

Who has a word that ends with /t/?
Ends, ends, ends with /t/?
Who has a word that ends with /t/?
Skip to my Lou, my darling!

Cat is a word that ends with /t/,
Ends, ends, ends with /t/.
Cat is a word that ends with /t/,
Skip to my Lou, my darling.

Hap Palmer records are highly recommended and make learning fun. One example is *Learning Basic Skills Through Music.*

Jazz Chants for Children by Carolyn Graham incorporate the rhythms of American English and repetition of words and sounds to make an entertaining and effective learning tool. Student books and cassettes of *Jazz Chants for Children, Jazz Chant Fairy Tales,* and *Jazzy Chants* are available from Delta Systems Co., Inc. (1-800-323-8270).

3. Poems

1, 2 buckle my shoe
3, 4 shut the door
5, 6 pick up sticks
7, 8 lay them straight
9, 10 a big fat hen.....have the students compose their own class poem.

4. Nursery Rhymes

Jack and Jill
Mary Had a Little Lamb
Little Jack Horner
Jack Be Nimble

Poetry that accompanies any classroom activity is fun and promotes language acquisition. Two suggested poetry books are *Where the Sidewalk Ends* and *A Light in the Attic* by Shel Silverstein.

5. Rhymes for Practicing Spanish Vowel Sounds

A

Mi gatita enferma está,
No sé si se curará,
O si al fin se morirá,
mi gatita enferma está.

E

A mí me gusta el café
No sé si lo tomaré,
o si, al fin, lo dejaré,
a mí me gusta el café.

I

Mi sombrerito perdí,
Con un lazo de carmesí,
y un ramito de alhelí,
mi sombrerito perdí.

O

Tengo un bonito reloj,
Mi papá me lo compró,
y ayer tarde se paró,
tengo un bonito reloj.

U

Ayer cantaba el cucú,
En el árbol de bambú,
¿Dime si lo oiste tú?
Ayer cantaba el cucú.

Tres Tristes Tigres

Tres tristes tigres tragaban trigo,
en tres tristes trastos en un trigal.
En tres tristes trastos en un trigal,
tres tristes tigres tragaban trigo.

¿ Cuántos Cuentos?

Cuando cuentes cuentos,
cuenta cuántos cuentas,
porque cuando cuentas cuentos,
nunca sabes cuántos cuentos cuentas.

5. Reading Aloud

Fluent early readers are children who have been read to. Although reading aloud is important for all students, it is especially important for second language learners, who have not been introduced to the English language on the knee of someone who loves them most of all. If a teacher reads aloud daily and well, students who are learning English will mirror the teacher's enthusiasm for the English language and for reading. In addition, they will be motivated to read for pleasure by associating reading with warm moments spent with a caring adult. They will learn about holding and using books. They will acquire the vocabulary and structures of the language, as well as a sense of the structure of stories.

Here are a few pointers for improving your read-aloud sessions:

1. **Make your reading time a close, happy, comfortable one.** You may choose to sit in a special "author's chair" when you read. Seat the students comfortably near you. At various times read to the whole class, small groups, and individuals. Invite special individuals — the principal, the district supervisor, your best friend — to read aloud to your class.

2. **If you are using books or magazines with pictures, make sure that all the students can see the pictures easily.** Select books that have large, clear pictures to share with the whole group. After you have read them aloud, make books with smaller pictures available so that students may enjoy them at their leisure.

3. **Select books that you like.** Work with your librarian to find good books that suit your taste and your students' interests and ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Use references such as *The Read-Aloud Handbook* (Trelease, 1982). Choose books with clear, realistic pictures that tell a story by themselves to help English learners follow along.

4. **Share books with small groups often.** By doing this, you can monitor your students' interests and interact frequently with individuals about books.

5. **Introduce books carefully.** Give your personal introduction to a book you have carefully selected and can't wait to share with students. Bring the author and illustrator to life by telling who they are and what they do. In most school and public libraries, references such as *About the Author* are available for your background reading. Students will learn that books are written by real people, and that they, too, can learn to write books.

6. **Activate background knowledge and focus students' attention before beginning the story.** Before reading, introduce the topic by asking students what they know about it from their own cultural experiences. For example, when introducing *Amelia Bedelia Plays Ball* by Peggy Parish, have students share what they know about team sports or games from their own heritage. With young and/or beginning language learners, props or "realia" are very helpful. Bring in a toy mouse when reading *If You Give a Mouse a Cookie* by Laura Joffe Numeroff, or keep a spider in a screen-covered aquarium as you read *The Very Busy Spider* by Eric Carle. Follow up a trip to the zoo by reading *I am Eyes: Ni Macho* by Leila Ward.

7. **Reading aloud well comes to few of us naturally, so practice.** Pay attention to your voice. Develop your expressiveness, varying pitch, volume, and pace of reading. Create different voices for different characters. And don't read too quickly — English learners need time to build mental pictures of what you are reading.

Suggestions for book selection for students who are acquiring English:

1. **In selecting books for readers at different stages in their language development, pay attention to your students' response to the books.** Read books that hold students' attention. Don't worry about a few passages or words that students don't completely understand. You want to stretch students' attention spans and challenge them. Don't, however, shoot way over students' heads and frustrate them. Retell events before and after reading the story to help beginning and intermediate students know what is going on. Watch students' faces as you read. If a number of students are frustrated or bored, stop and review the plot. If many students are not enjoying the book, find another selection.

2. **For beginning language learners, start with wordless books (such as Mercer Mayer's), simple predictable picture books (such as the Big Books put out by several publishers), and rhymes (such as Mother Goose) and other poems.** When reading aloud, encourage beginning listeners to ask questions and make contributions, and don't hesitate to read favorite stories over and over. Encourage students to join in on predictable lines like, "I think I can, I think I can" from *The Little Engine that Could* by Watty Piper or "I meant what I said and I said what I meant," (from *Horton Hatches the Egg* by Dr. Seuss).

3. **As your students learn to love and listen to books, move up to short storybooks** by such authors as Dr. Seuss, Bill Peet, Tomie de Paola, Ezra Jack Keats, and Judith Viorst, to mention just a few. The Children's Book Press in San Francisco is publishing beautiful pictures books by and about people from many cultures. Keep reading poetry to the students, too (try Arnold Adoff, Charlotte Zolotow, Kara Kuskin, and X. J. Kennedy), and share interesting selections from nonfiction picture books and students' magazines (perhaps nature books such as *Zoobooks, Ranger Rick,* or *National Geographic World*).

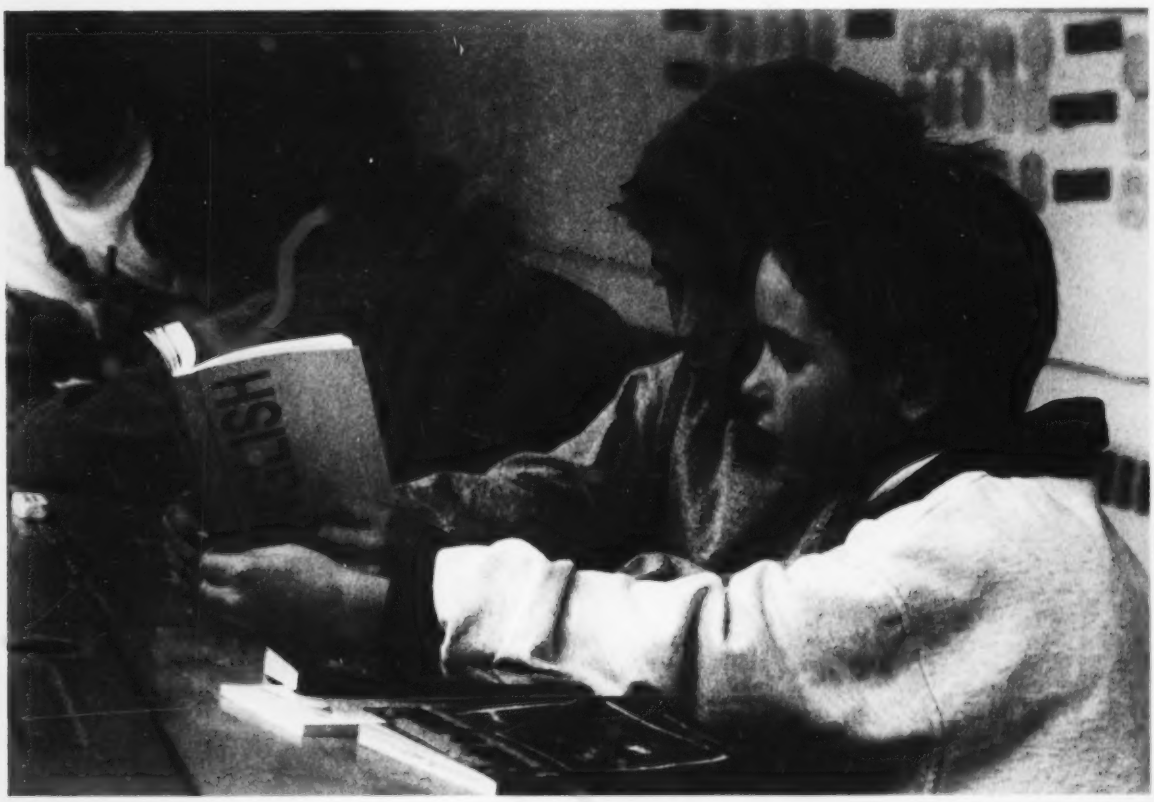
4. **Focus on one author or subject for a while.** Give students repeated exposure to a favorite author, and read a number of books on a common topic or theme, so that language learners can hear the same terms and concepts used in different contexts. Their comprehension will grow as they build on previous experience. Help students compare and contrast different works by an author or different authors. Choose books purposefully to help students discover themes, formats, styles, and types of literature used.

5. **Make your story selection multicultural.** Find and read stories that present different countries and ethnic groups, including those represented in your class. Look for books that show people of different cultures respecting one another's differences yet working and living together. *Abiyoyo*, by Pete Seeger, is an excellent example of such a book.

6. Shared Reading

Shared reading is an effective literacy development strategy for groups of students functioning at a wide range of levels. Beginning language learners hear the rhythm of the language along with much repeated vocabulary. Intermediate students can use reading-like behavior while reciting from the books or following the teacher. The pace, positive teaching, and meaningful context all maintain student attention and promote rapid learning.

Shared reading requires teacher-made, student-made, or published poster-sized books that can be seen and read by a group of students or by the whole class at once, or text on a transparency for the class to use. The text should be well written, appealing to students, and predictable, using rhyme, rhythm, repetition, and clear illustrations to make the content accessible to students who are learning English. Big books or language experience charts authored by the teacher, students, or both together are also appropriate for shared reading. Students can also hold individual copies of the same piece.



A sample daily shared reading session might look like this:

1. **Tune in.** Get students' attention by beginning with familiar songs and poetry using a pointer to follow along on enlarged print charts.

2. **Share favorite stories.** With students, re-read familiar stories, poems, and songs in unison. Encourage students to choose their favorites. Between readings, point out elements of reading using the various cue systems: semantic, context, syntactic, and graphophonic. Teach students directional conventions, prediction, self-correction, sight vocabulary, letter-sound associations, letter names, conventions of punctuation, and intonation patterns in the context of reading.

3. **Introduce a new story.** Introduce the topic so that children can put it in a familiar cultural context. Gathering mussels from underneath the ice as described in *The Very Last First Time* by Jan Andrews may seem very alien to some students, but they can identify with the "first" time they were considered old enough to do something without adult supervision. Help the students use picture cues and word-solving strategies in the context of the new piece, modeling how print is unlocked and building up anticipation so that the students can't wait for the new story.

4. **Read aloud.** Give a dramatic model reading of the story from beginning to end. Students may begin to chime in on repeated sentences or phrases. Then have students share ideas and feelings about the story. Follow with a second choral reading, and perhaps a third, with students doing more of the reading each time.

5. **Students read independently.** Have the students read or "pretend read" familiar stories individually or in small groups. Encourage them to play the role of the teacher pointing at the text as they read to one another. Make these stories available to students during Book Sharing Time.

6. **Students respond through follow-up activities.** Have students participate in related arts activities: painting, mural-making, dramatization, puppetry, mime, all based on the story's theme and plot. For example, after shared choral reading of the Navajo chant "There Are No People Song," the students might videotape the chant or perform it for visitors or another class.

7. **Adapt trade books.** After much exposure to a book through shared reading, encourage students to innovate on the literary structure of a shared book by writing or dictating adaptations of favorite books or poems. They can make their adapted trade book as a class, in small groups, or independently with you or another adult. For example, the students who read the Navajo chant might collect and write down chants from their own cultures of origin.

7. Teaching Story Structure

Students learning to read English as a second language have some disadvantages in relation to native speakers. ESL students lack background knowledge of the culture, which is the context of written and spoken English. Furthermore, a particular content schema or structure may be culturally specific and not be part of the language learner's cultural background.

Through careful choices of texts and careful introduction of these choices, teachers can both provide students with literature they can comprehend and help students acquire the necessary background cultural knowledge and schemata of written English. The particular schema that is addressed in this section is that of story structure or story grammar. Native language speakers often have acquired a concept of how a story is structured in their language before they reach school age. The grammar of a narrative has been described in a number of ways, but is usually given steps similar to these seven:

1. **setting** - where the story takes place
2. **initial event** - the event that spurs the protagonist into action
3. **simple reaction** - an emotional response to the initial event
4. **goal-setting** - a decision to do something about the problem set up by the initial event
5. **attempt to reach the goal** - the main character tries to solve the problem
6. **outcomes** - consequences of the attempts
7. **reaction** - the protagonist's reaction to the events in the story

Advanced learners, with help and support, can understand and use all seven steps. For beginning and intermediate students, use simpler story "maps" to help students understand the structure of stories and write their own.

What kinds of literature will help your students acquire story structure?

The following literature types are appropriate both as read-aloud selections and as books for the beginning reader:

1. **Select reading materials that reflect students' cultural backgrounds.** Include stories that take place in students' native countries, stories that students may have heard or read in their native languages, stories with characters from the students' native cultures, or stories about children or adults who experience a new culture. Sources for multicultural literature are suggested at the end of this chapter.

2. **Select books about experiences common to all cultures and about cultures and people represented in the class.** Student's own writings are also excellent sources.

3. **Select books that provide students with needed cultural background.** Think about experiences that will help students deal with their new culture, and select literature or help students write language experience stories about them.

4. **Choose predictable books and poems.** Because predictable books have student-oriented vocabulary and content, and repetition of language, they are very appropriate for beginning and intermediate students. By the time a teacher has read a few pages of one of these books, students begin to predict what will come next. Use well-illustrated works when possible. Pictures provide visual cues to the story structure.

5. **Choose wordless picture books.** Wordless books like those by John Goodall and Anno tell a story with pictures, and give the student valuable opportunities to construct the language to go with them.

6. **Encourage narrow reading.** Reading on a single topic or focusing on works of a single author will help minimize interference from the text, and thus be more efficient for second language learners. If your students take a liking to Langston Hughes, read them as many of his works as you can find. Libraries have reference series to help you (e.g., *Something About the Author*). If a group of students is interested in tornadoes, help them find every book and article they can on the topic. Let them become experts.

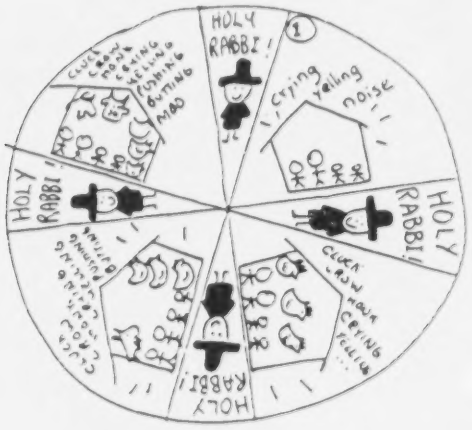
What can you do when presenting the literature to help students acquire story structure?

1. **Use cueing strategies.** Use verbal cueing strategies such as changes in voice for various characters, pauses to indicate changes in events and dramatic moments, and exaggerated intonation for key words and concepts. Use nonverbal cueing strategies, such as pointing to illustrations or parts of illustrations and using facial expressions, gestures, and actions to accompany key events in the story.

2. **Use questions as a "scaffolding" technique** to clarify meanings of words, to develop concepts, to encourage both literal and inferential comprehension, to relate the story to the students' own experiences, and to bring out the story map, or the elements of the story grammar (examples of both are included below).

3. **Use diagrams or charts of the story map to provide students with visual pictures of the structures of stories.** After you have introduced some simple story diagrams, use the strategy inductively by having students suggest the parts of the map as you draw them. Students can also make their own maps and diagrams of popular stories. Story diagrams are an appropriate pre-writing as well as pre-reading and review strategy. Diagrams of three stories of varying complexity are shown here.

Line story - the story has a cumulative linear sequence.
There was an Old Woman Who Swallowed a Fly



Circle story — the story ends back where it begins
It Could Always Be Worse
A Yiddish folktale by Margot Zemach

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

More complex story with all the basic elements. Most folktales, short stories, and novels include these parts, sometimes in repeated and more complex patterns. As you begin, help students pick out essential elements. The diagram can become more and more complex as stories and students' understanding of concepts deepen.

John Henry	
Setting/Characters	John Henry, steel driving man, is born. Railroad is his destiny.
Initial Event/Problem	The Captain introduces the steam drill.
Reaction	John Henry is angry.
Goal-Setting	John Henry swears to beat the steam drill.
Attempt to Reach Goal	John Henry races the steam drill, driving spikes through rock in the tunnel.
Outcomes	After a great struggle, the steam drill breaks down. John Henry wins.
Reaction/Resolution	John Henry dies from the effort, but is recognized by all.

8. Process Writing in Multicultural, Multilingual Classrooms

An integrated approach to writing has many advantages for language learning. Students begin reading with words that they have written and that are in their own speaking vocabularies. They learn reading skills, such as phonics, in a purposeful, meaningful context and so are more prepared to comprehend what they read. Students become more independent language learners through writing and become aware of their own writing strategies. They learn to use many resources including peers, teachers, other adults, and reference works. Students who write frequently learn spelling and grammar skills better when they use them in composition than when they are drilled in these skills without the opportunity to compose.

Students need daily experiences with composition. Like learning to speak a first or second language, learning to write is a gradual developmental process. Just as we are thrilled with a baby's first attempts at speech, we should be delighted by a student's first attempts to write. For beginning students, composition may consist of dictating and/or writing in a native language. Students may progress to labeling pictures in English and writing important words, such as family names. Gradually, given encouragement and ample opportunity to write, students begin to write longer pieces about topics that are familiar and important to them.

Begin by creating a climate that promotes writing. A writing classroom is a classroom where:

1. **Students' writing is valued.** Teachers are genuinely interested in what students have to say and encourage this interest among students. Students' attempts to write and to progress in writing are celebrated, and mistakes are seen as a natural part of the development process. Select a place of honor — an author's chair or stool — where students can sit when they share their writing with the class. You may sit in this same chair when you represent the author in read-aloud activities.

2. **Students write frequently for an authentic audience.** Their writing is meaningful, purposeful, and about topics they choose. Not only teachers, but peers, parents, and persons in the school and greater community provide an audience for student writing.

3. **The environment is language- and literature-rich.** Students are surrounded with examples of good writing by both published authors and peers. Students are read to daily, and books, authors, and writing are hot topics for discussion.

4. **The environment is print-rich.** The physical environment offers many reasons and opportunities to read and write. The room has interesting charts, books, labeled posters, and written instructions or rebus signs and symbols at a learning center. Much of the writing posted around the room is the students' own work. Students have many occasions to write. Beginning students might sign their names on an attendance sheet in the morning and write or copy their own notes to parents to give them important information about school events. Intermediate and advanced students might write messages to teachers and peers, letters to request information on a topic they are studying, records of their favorite sports teams, essays for job or school applications, letters to pen pals and family members, or journal entries about literature and content areas.

5. **Students write in many modes.** Students write lists; informative pieces; personal narratives; descriptions of persons, scenes, or events; directions; reports; notes; outlines; letters; poems; jokes; etc. Your students are very different from one another; a wide range of writing activities will help you address each student's learning style.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The Writing Process

Six steps in the writing process are described here: prewriting, drafting, sharing or conferring, revising, editing, and publishing. Not all steps are used with all types of writing; neither are all used with every piece a student writes. Certain stages may be changed or omitted depending on the student's age and proficiency at writing. For example, young children or inexperienced writers are not expected to use revision extensively and often publish "first drafts." Experienced writers, on the other hand, often do not need elaborately structured prewriting experiences but can prepare to write privately.

Step 1. Prewriting

Prewriting experiences help students to develop the need and desire to write and to acquire information or content for writing, as well as necessary vocabulary, syntax, and language structures. To help students get ready to write, provide:

a. Talking and listening time, including language experience activities.

b. Shared experiences such as trips, plays, interviews, cooking demonstrations, or films.

c. Wide exposure to literature appropriate to the students' age and language proficiency. For beginning second language learners, include predictable books and wordless books.

d. Drama activities, including role-playing, mime, and storytelling.

e. Opportunities to study, discuss, and map story patterns and structures (see Story Structure).

f. Semantic mapping to elicit vocabulary and organize ideas.

g. Opportunities for students to prepare for writing by exploring what they know — their own personal experiences or subjects they have studied in depth.

h. "Freewriting" — having students write anything that comes to them, without stopping, for a short period of time.

i. "Sunshine Outline" — this graphic technique for outlining helps students generate information to prepare for writing by asking the basic newswriter questions. The students draw rays coming from a sun and write a question word on each ray: who, what, when, where, why, how. Then the students write a phrase or two that answers each question and use this outline to write their pieces.

Step 2. Drafting

When drafting, students write quickly to get ideas down, working for fluency without worrying much about mechanics. They are encouraged to think of writing as mutable, not as "done" once it is put to paper. Students are encouraged to spell based on the sound of letters and words that they know.

Remember to:

a. Write along with the students. Model being a writer and produce your own pieces to share with students.

b. Encourage students to "spell as best they can," using their knowledge of the alphabet, phonics, familiar words, and information around the classroom. Your students may be a little frustrated with this at first, but if you persist in not providing too much help, they will become more confident writers. They may use dictionaries, thesauruses, and the spell-check feature on the computer to edit and revise at later stages in the writing.

c. Provide writing experiences daily. Journals or learning logs may be helpful.

d. Encourage students to refer back to maps, webs, jot lists, outlines they have made during prewriting.

Step 3 - Sharing and Responding to Writing

In this step, students share their writing in small groups, large groups, or individually with the teacher. Teacher and students give one another encouragement and feedback or input in preparation for revision. Suggested activities follow.

a. To model and teach the conferencing process, share and discuss an anonymous piece of writing (written by you or by a student from another class or year). An overhead projector is very helpful in this activity. Model giving encouraging and specific responses in writing.

b. Use peer conference groups and train students to use "PQP" in their responses to others' writing—Positive feedback, Questions to clarify meaning, and suggestions to Polish writing.

c. Have students read their writing aloud in regular individual or small group conferences. Reading aloud helps students evaluate their own writing in a situation where they can get suggestions from others. Begin peer conferences by demonstrating appropriate skills as in (a) above. Motivate students through your regard and respect for their writing. Begin with pair groups and short, structured times (e.g., five minutes), during which each partner finds something he/she likes about the other's piece.

d. Respond to students' writing in interactive journals (see Dialogue Journals, p. 31).

Step 4. Revising Writing

In this step, students revise selected pieces of writing for quality of content and clarity of expression. Not all pieces are revised, only those in which the student has a particular interest and for which the student has a particular audience in mind. Revision activities include:

a. Demonstrating revision techniques such as using editorial symbols on the overhead or physically cutting and pasting a chart-sized paper or transparency to rearrange text.

b. Using a word processor to make revisions.

c. "Mini-lessons" — demonstrations/discussions of qualities of good writing (e.g., clarity, voice, sense of audience, appropriate sequencing, word choice, lead, ending, transitions) in preparation for revision. Focus on one skill per writing project; as students accumulate skills, they can revise for these aspects in their writing.

d. Students applying revision guidelines and suggestions to their own work. When appropriate, encourage students to share (Step 3) and revise (Step 4) several times until they are satisfied with the content of their work.

Step 5. Editing

In this step, students, with the help of peers and teachers, fix up mechanics of usage and spelling. Editing standards are different for students of different ages and at different stages in their writing. This step is only carried out when there is a purpose and an authentic audience for the writing, i.e., a piece is going to be published. Editing activities may include:

a. Making a chart for classroom walls or folders that list editing skills that have been taught and that students may use as a checklist when they edit.

b. Creating an editing center with resources: editing chart, dictionary, thesaurus, grammar reference, computer with spell check. Alternatively, students could keep a chart of editing skills they have acquired.

c. Conducting editing mini-lessons and conferences with individuals, small groups, and full groups. You might require an editing conference before a student's final draft.

d. Helping students make personal spelling, translation,

53

or picture dictionaries for their use in checking spelling or usage.

e. Peer edit exchanges or conferences.

Step 6. Publishing

Through publication, the writing is presented to the public and celebrated. Although new language learners' writing is often published in draft form, writing of older and/or more proficient writers will be revised and edited before publication. Middle and high school students probably need some protection from adverse audience response — perhaps an editing conference with you before work is prepared for presentation to outsiders.

Publishing gives students an authentic reason to write. Publish students' writing often. Parents might be willing to help you with the mechanics of bookbinding. This is a way for parents who may lack confidence in English to help the teacher and contribute to their children's literacy development. See the boxed list of suggested ways to publish student writing.

Ways to Publish Student Writing

- Put writing on walls and in halls
- Read writing aloud to the class, over the loudspeaker, at PTA meetings, or at assemblies
- Write stories or folk tales to share with younger students
- Make a video of students reading their pieces
- Bind students' writings into individual books
- Bind contributions from each student into a class book, such as a poetry anthology, short story collection, or nonfiction collection
- Put cards and pockets in the backs of student- or class-made books for check-out from the class library
- Make a class newspaper or literary magazine
- Put student-made posters, book jackets, charts, etc. on the wall
- Mail letters
- Print a useful book to sell or give away in the community, such as an ethnic restaurant guide, a multicultural cookbook, or a local history

Resources for Reading Aloud

Hudelson, S. (1985). Beginning Reading and the Bilingual Child. *Dimensions, 13*, 510-514.

Smallwood, B. A. (1990). *The Literature Connection: A Read-Aloud Guide for Multicultural Classroom Reading.* Addison-Wesley (1-800-552-2259).

Trelease, J. (1982). *The Read-Aloud Handbook.* New York: Penguin Books.

Recommended Anthologies

Fadiman, C. (1985). *The World Treasury of Children's Literature (Vols. 1 - 3).* Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Koch, K. & Farrell, K. (1985). *Talking to the Sun.* New York: Holt, Rhinehart & Winston.

Prelutsky, J. (1983). *Random House Book of Poetry for Children.* New York: Random House.

Resources on Process Writing

Calkins, L. (1986). *The Art of Teaching Writing.* Heinemann (1-800-541-2086).

Hudelson, S. (1984). "Kan yu ret an rayt en Engles: Children Become Literate in English as a Second Language," *TESOL Quarterly, 18*(2).

Krashen, S. (1984), *Writing: Research, Theory and Applications.* Pergammon Press.

References

Georgia Department of Education. (1992). *English to Speakers of Other Languages Resource Guide,* Twin Towers East, Atlanta, GA 30334.

Krashen, S.D. (1992). *Fundamentals of Language Education,* Laredo Publishing Co., 22930 Lockness Ave., Torrance, CA 90501.

McCloskey, M.L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies,* Educo Press, Atlanta, GA.

9. English as a Second Language Library Resource List (Multicultural/Bilingual/Books in Spanish)

Reference Books

Diccionario Bilingue Ilustrado (Lectorum)
Level One: 250-word picture dictionary (Grades K-2) (0-8325-0052-6) $8.95
Level Two: Alphabetical dictionary with Spanish & English sentences (Grades 2-4) (0-8325-0053-4) $8.95
Level Three: Formal dictionary with guide words, phonetic pronunciations, and definitions in Spanish (Grades 4-8) (0-8325-0054-2) $9.95

Bantam Spanish-English Dictionary (Lectorum) (0-553-26370-6) $3.95

The New Oxford Picture Dictionary (English/Spanish edition) (Grades 6 & up) (Oxford University Press) $9.25

Ingles Para Latinos (Barron's) (0-8120-4781-8) $9.95
This book is designed for people who are literate in Spanish and who want to practice English on their own.

Enciclopedia Juvenil Oceano (Lectorum) (84-7764-483-7) $150.00
A six-volume encyclopedia in Spanish.

Multicultural stories

Ancona - *Pablo Remembers the Fiesta of the Day of the Dead* (Lectorum) (English and Spanish editions available) $12.00

Silverthorne - *Fiesta! Mexico's Great Celebrations* (Lectorum) $5.55

Hewett - *Hector Lives in the U.S. Now - The Story of a Mexican-American Child* (Lectorum) $11.15

Hispanic-Americans: Grades K-3 (7 books, 1 of each title) (Sundance) (LAO7894) $27.95

Hispanic-Americans: Grades 4-6 (7 books, 1 of each title) (Sundance) (LA O7803) $21.95

Spier - *People* (Also available in Spanish from Lectorum under the title of *Gente*) $14.35

Bilingual Stories

Selena! by Clint Richmond (a bilingual biography of the Texas singing star) (Pocket Books) $5.99

Family Pictures (Bilingual/English-Spanish) (Lectorum) $5.95 (paper) $13.95 (hardcover)

Uncle Nacho's Hat (Bilingual/English-Spanish) (Perma-Bound) $11.50

The Woman Who Outshone the Sun (Bilingual/English-Spanish) (Lectorum) $5.95 (paper) $13.95 (hard-cover)

Carlos and the Cornfield (Bilingual/English-Spanish) (Chiquilibros) $14.95

Books in Spanish for Children who are Literate in Spanish

Fairy Tales in Spanish (Troll Associates) (MC-PD226) (9 books) $26.66

El Gran Capoquero (Chiquilibros) (Grades 3-6) $4.95

Ramona y Su Padre - (translated Beverly Cleary book) (Lectorum) (Grades 3-6) $6.35

Las Telarañas de Carlota - (translation of *Charlotte's Web*) (Lectorum) (Grades 4-6) $6.35

Un Puente Hasta Terabithia - (translation of *A Bridge to Terabithia*) (Lectorum) (Grades 6-8) $9.95

Cesar Chavez y La Causa (Lectorum) (Grades 2-4) $9.95

Cuentos y Leyendas de Amor Para Niños (short stories) (Chiquilibros) (Grades 6& up) $12.95

Cuentos de Espantos y Aparecidos (short stories) (Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 & up) $12.95

Un Grillo en Times Square (Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 & up) $4.95

Una Boda Desmadrada (Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 & up) $6.95

Publishing Companies

Barron's - 250 Wireless Blvd., Hauppauge, NY 11788, 516-434-3311.

Celebration Press - One Jacob Way, Reading, MA 01867, 1-800-792-0550.

Chiquilibros - Call 1-800-454-2748 for information on how to order books.

Delta Systems Co., Inc. - 1400 Miller Parkway, McHenry, IL 60050, 1-800-323-8270.

Lectorum - 137 West 14th St., New York, NY 10011, 1-800-345-5946.

Oxford University Press - 2001 Evans Rd., Carey, NC 27513, 1-800-451-7556.

Perma-Bound - Vandalia Road, Jacksonville, IL 62650, 1-800-637-6581.

Pocket Books - 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020.

Sundance Publishing - 234 Taylor St., P.O. Box 1326; Littleton, MA 01460, 1-800-343-8204.

Troll Associates - 100 Corporate Drive, Mahwah, NJ 07430, 1-800-526-5289.

4

English in the Content Areas

1. Introduction

The aim of school is to teach students the **content** of everyday living, (e.g., math, science, social studies, literature). The language of that content is the focus of this chapter. A child who possesses the skills in social language, (e.g., the language of the playground or the grocery store) does not necessarily possess academic language. BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) is the language most students use for face-to-face social communication. By the time they exit ESL class, they should have this language. CALP (Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency) is the language necessary for success in academic or cognitive domains.

In Pre-K through second grade, vocabulary and language development (both social and academic) is the main focus of instruction. In their study of academic language, Collier and Thomas say if Pre-K through second grade is taught with big books and music, with an emphasis on what things mean, students have a good head start toward gaining academic language.

It is in the primary grades 3-5 (6) where there is a divergence. Vocabulary, the most common aspect of the language of these domains, gives good examples. For instance, ***math has many ways to say the same thing.*** Students must know that addition can be signaled by **any** of these words: add, plus, combine, sum, and increased by. Similarly subtraction can be signaled by these words: subtract from, decrease by, less, take away, minus, differ, or less than.

In science, logical connectors such as "because," "however," "consequently," and "for example," indicate the nature of the relationship between the parts of a text or experiment. An experiment itself is formulaic, and language is used to express it: hypothesis, experiment, conclusion.

For social studies it is not only the vocabulary, but all the background knowledge many migrant students do not possess. For instance, one mentions the Fourth of July to an American student and it conjures up thoughts of the founding of this country, the Declaration of Independence, the Revolutionary War, etc. For a migrant student it may mean very little.

This is a very quick overview of just one aspect of what makes subject matter so hard for LEP students. Added to this are the semantics and discourse features of language, and the use of vocabulary in differing contexts. (Think of the word "power" as in the "powers of the president"; or "power" as in "the electric power company"; or "power" as in "4 to the highest power.") These vocabulary differences are bewildering to many LEP students.

Research shows that language is effectively learned when it is a vehicle of instruction, not the object; students reach a high level of second language development while mastering subject matter. Input is made comprehensible through a variety of means: demonstrations, visual aids, graphic organizers, hands-on materials, and manipulation of the content. Schema, or background knowledge, is built before a topic is introduced, so students are able to process material from the "top down," i.e. having general knowledge of the broad picture before studying the details.

The following lessons should give you, the teacher, a start on integrating language and content.

2. Basic Principles

Students are still learning English and the style of the American educational system, so teachers should present information as clearly and systematically as possible. Remember to:

Announce the lesson's objectives and activities

It is important to write the objectives on the board and review them orally before class begins. It is also helpful to place the lesson in the context of its broader theme and preview upcoming lessons.

Write legibly

Teachers need to remember that some students have low levels of literacy or are unaccustomed to the Roman alphabet.

Develop and maintain routines

Routines will help LEP students anticipate what will happen (e.g., types of assignments, ways of giving instructions) without relying solely on language cues.

List instructions step-by-step

It helps to familiarize the students with each step individually and not require them to find the answer or complete the whole process from the start. This procedure is ideal for teaching students to solve math and science word problems.

Present information in varied ways

By using multiple media in the classroom, teachers reduce the reliance on language and place the information in a context that is more comprehensible to the students.

Provide frequent summations of the salient points of the lesson

Teachers should

- try to use visual reviews with lists and charts;
- paraphrase the points where appropriate; and
- have students provide oral summaries themselves.

3. Mathematics

Purpose

The set of activities presented below shows how mathematical concepts and skills can be integrated into language learning so that students learn the academic language necessary for mathematics instruction.

The activities presented here deal with the mathematical topic **Identifying Geometric Shapes and their Attributes.**

Grades 1-2

content focus: identifying shapes
language focus: labeling shapes

Materials

You'll need a class set of attribute blocks, or sets of cardboard shapes that differ by size, color, and shape.

The Basic Approach

1. Divide students into small groups, each with a set of attribute blocks or cardboard shapes. Ask students to divide the blocks into 3 groups. (Students should discover on their own that the attributes are color, shape, size).
2. Leave each student with a set of blocks that differ only in shape (not in color or size). Name the shapes: "This is a circle. What is this?" Have the students answer until they learn the names of the various shapes. "This is a _____."
3. Provide additional practice by giving simple commands: "Put the square on your head. Hold the triangle in your left hand."

Extensions and Variations

1. Provide written labels on cards. Have the students match attribute blocks to word cards. Students can work in pairs.
2. Have students write the word for each shape their partners show them.
3. Have students practice with worksheets that require them to draw or label shapes: "Draw a red circle. Label the square."

Grades 3-6

content focus: identifying common attributes through set intersection
language focus: describing, giving reasons

Materials

Sets of attribute blocks or cardboard shapes
Flannel graph with construction paper shapes

The Basic Approach

1. Divide students into small groups. Have the students divide their attribute blocks into two groups, (e.g., all shapes that are squares and all shapes that are blue). Illustrate what they have found on flannel graph.
2. Ask students if some of the blocks could belong to both groups or sets, (e.g., the squares that are blue). "Are there some blocks that can belong to both sets? What are they? Why can they belong to the first set? To the second set?"
3. Explain the meaning of mathematical terms such as

set, **intersection**, and **complement**. Have students give their reasons for the intersection of the sets, (e.g., "Because these are squares and they are blue").

4. Ask students other questions about the elements of the sets. "How many yellow elements are there in the complement? What squares are not in the intersection?"

5. Illustrate the intersection of the two sets with a Venn Diagram or a Carroll Diagram.

Extensions and Variations

1. Have the students make attribute chains with a set of blocks. For example: "Put a small blue circle on the table. Find a shape that is different in only one way." Have the student put his/her choice next to the blue circle, e.g., a small red circle. Have the other students state whether they agree that this choice is different in one way or not. "Yes, because they are both small circles; the only difference is color." Continue the chain, with students providing reasons for their choices.

2. Then change the chain pattern to two different (e.g., medium red triangle, then a small blue triangle), and finally three different (e.g., small yellow circle, then a big red square). In each case, have students provide the reasons for the various sequences of shapes (e.g., "The second element matches the first in color and shape; the third matches the second in shape and size"). This activity can become a game for small groups, and students may try to "trick" each other by putting down a wrong block to get rid of theirs first or by giving a wrong reason.

Lesson adapted from Gilbert J. Cuervas, Theresa Corasanti Dale, Richard Tokar, Gina Richardson, and Karen Willetts

4. Science

Purpose

This strategy can be used to integrate language and content instruction in science classes with a laboratory focus. The approach takes standard laboratory experiments and integrates language learning. The following activity illustrates the implementation of the strategy at the primary school level for a specific scientific concept: *Air has pressure because it weighs something.*

Materials

water
pencils and paper
towels
medium-size glasses (glass or plastic - styrofoam doesn't work)
pans or sinks
stiff cards of various sizes, (e.g., index cards)

The Basic Approach

For students at **beginning proficiency levels**, conduct the following experiment (Steps 1-7). The steps for the basic experiment are appropriate at the elementary school level. The primary cognitive focus is observation, which can be expressed linguistically through simple unstructured discussion and/or note-taking activities, and by asking yes-no questions or giving imperatives.

Step 1: Write on the board and state orally: "Air has pressure because it weighs something."

Step 2: Put water in the glass until it comes to the top.

Step 3: Push the card over the top of the glass.

Step 4: Hold your hand over the card. Turn the glass of water upside down. Be sure to leave your hand on the card.

Step 5: Remove hand and ask students to comment on what they have observed, eliciting relevant vocabulary and concepts.

Step 6: Divide class into small groups (2-3 students each). Each group is asked to reenact the experiment, keeping a record of when it does and doesn't work.

Step 7: Reconvene class and have group members relate results.

Extensions

The instructor may want to incorporate some higher level cognitive focuses at the **intermediate proficiency level.** In that case, the following steps may be added to the basic experiment. (Refer to steps 1-7 on p. 64.)

4b. Ask them to predict what will happen.

6b. Tell groups to record results on a prepared form that classifies what happens under different conditions. For example:

glass not filled to the top with water _____

_____

card not large enough to fit over rim _____

_____

hand removed too quickly _____

_____

card not stiff enough _____

_____

7b. Ask students to relate what happened under the varying conditions and to provide an explanation.

At the **advanced proficiency level**, the experiment can be expanded to include the following steps:

6c. Have students write their own conclusions.

6d. Assign a group recorder the task of collecting all the conclusions, writing down, and reporting to the group the various conclusions. Students in each group then add hypotheses and conclusions.

7c. Have each group make a report to the class. This may be structured according to a standard reporting format.

7d. Collect written group reports and return them at a later date with comments and perhaps allow for further discussion.

Variations

A related activity would be to take an empty clear glass, turn it upside down, and push it down into a pan of water. Demonstrate that the water doesn't go in to the glass (or only slightly), because air pressure prevents it. Use similar steps as above, eliciting verbal responses and explanations from the students at the appropriate level of proficiency. Variations will, of course, depend upon whether the class is an ESL class or a mainstream class, as well as upon the nature of the specific experiment being used.

Lesson adapted from Patricia Chamberlain, Mary Ellen Quinn, and George Spanos

5. Social Studies 1

Purpose

This strategy introduces and reviews important events, people, dates, and concepts in the social studies content area using color-coded sentence strips. By manipulating sentence fragments, the teacher can focus on both content information and language development. Examples of language development objectives may include:

- develop sentence structure and vocabulary
- review WH-questions
- promote oral language proficiency and the transition to reading/writing

Language Level

Beginning to Intermediate

Educational Level

Grade one or higher

Materials

Strips of colored paper and colored cards
Colored markers
Pocket chart (optional) for visual display
Magnetic tape (optional) for display of cards/sentences on magnetic chalkboard or thumbtacks for display on bulletin board.

The Basic Approach

This strategy involves the use of color-coded sentence strips to present content information and develop a variety of language skills.

Step 1: Prepare the following materials:

- color-coded strips with content information
- color-coded WH-question cards that correspond to specific sentence parts on the colored strips
- color-coded word cards that contain key words/phrases from the target sentences

Example:

Cortez	went from Cuba	to Mexico	in 1519	to look for gold.
blue	red	green	purple	orange

Who	from Where	Where	When	Why
blue	red	green	purple	orange

Alternate question cards:

What was his name?	What country was he from?	What place?
blue	red	green

What year?	What reason?
purple	orange

Step 2: Introduce content information on "World Explorers" to students by:

a. Separating target sentences into fragments; building up sentences by taping or tacking strips to board as they are added; having students repeat or read fragments as they are added.

b. Eliciting appropriate responses to WH-questions about the contents; asking questions about each segment as it is added; **then** reviewing by asking basic questions.

c. Eliciting appropriate WH-questions to correspond with given content information; and pointing to the answer and having students supply the question.

d. Distributing question cards and word cards to students for physical response drills; having student with question card stand up and ask; **then** student with appropriate answer stand up and respond.

e. Distributing word cards to students so they can reconstruct target sentences by standing up in correct order.

Step 3: Encourage student interaction with color-coded cards and sentence strips. Have students pair up to practice with each other.

Step 4: Move from oral practice into writing activities:

a. Have students write appropriate content information or WH-question following an oral cue.

b. Have students write target sentences when given a word or phrase as an oral stimulus.

c. Have students create new sentences (following the structural pattern) when given additional content information.

Extension

Model other similar sentences for an oral and/or written review. For example:

- Cabot went from England to America in 1497 to find a trade route.
- Cartier went from France to Canada in 1534 to find a trade route.

Ask questions: who? what country? where? when? why?

Other Uses

This strategy could be easily adapted to other social studies units as well as other content area subjects.

Lesson adapted from Melissa King, Stephen Mathiessen, and Joseph Bellino

6. Social Studies 2

Purpose

This strategy uses visual representations known as "semantic webs" to portray the relationships among various components of a content lesson. Presentation of content via semantic webs helps students develop the skills of organizing information and comparing/contrasting information as related to key concepts. At the same time, language development occurs through:

- vocabulary development
- practice in clarifying and describing relationships

Language Level

Intermediate to advanced

Educational Level

Grade 2 or higher

Materials

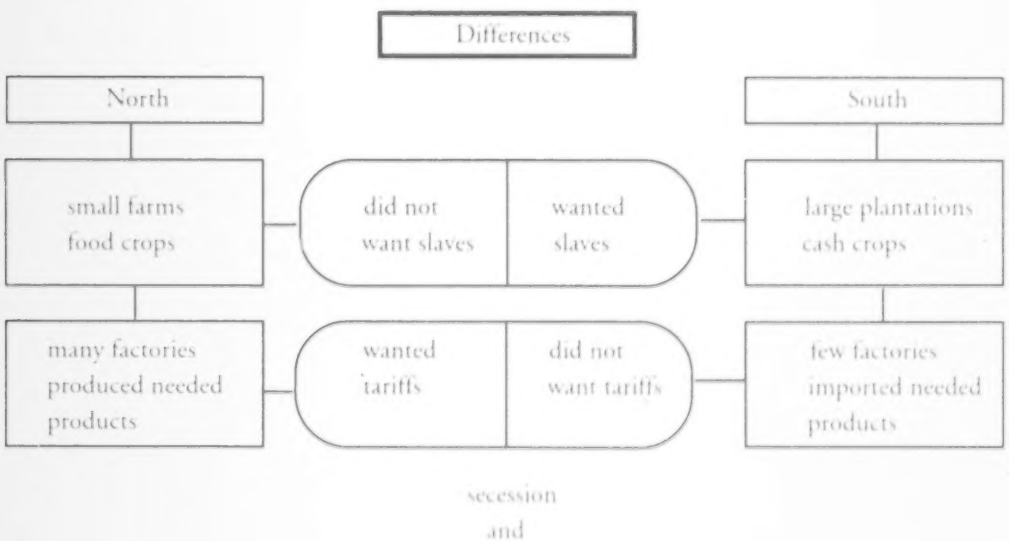
Paper and pencil
Ruler
Templates with shapes/configurations (optional)

The Basic Approach

This strategy uses a visual scheme to represent relationships among important events, people, or other historical facts and concepts; for example, the following content focus can be considered:

DIFFERENCES between the North and the South led to disagreement over socioeconomic policies and eventually led to the secession of the Confederate states.

Step 1: Review the unit to be studied and identify key concept(s).
Determine important relationship(s) in the unit and list the target categories.



Step 2: Present this semantic web to students.

Encourage student discussion of content and concepts represented.

Ask such questions as:

- What states are in the North? in the South?
- Where are there small farms? large plantations?
- What are crops? goods? tariffs?
- Who wanted slaves but did not want tariffs?
- If appropriate to student level, ask them to generate sentences and/or a paragraph to explain relationships illustrated in the web, or to read a related text.

Step 3: Ask for elaboration of ideas represented in web. For example, ask students which major differences between the North and South led to war.

If a related reading has been assigned, present a blank web or one with gaps and ask students in groups to fill in details based on this reading.

Other Uses

This strategy could easily be adapted to other social studies units as well as other content area subjects. It can serve as a prereading as well as a review activity. This strategy is excellent for developing pros and cons, for clarification, and for analyzing paragraphs for major ideas and supporting ideas.

7. Integrated Content Lesson

The Very Hungry Caterpillar

This lesson may take two or three days. Possible break points are suggested in the text.

Age/Grade Level

Ages 6-8
Grades 1-2

Content Objectives

Science:
- Identify some common foods
- Recognize stages of life of a butterfly

Social Studies:
- State and sequence days of the week

Math:
- Sequence pictures using the numbers 1-5

Art:
- Draw favorite foods

Thinking:
- Sequence stages of life of a butterfly
- Solve a word puzzle

Language Objectives

Listening/Speaking:
- Listen to a story
- Respond to oral commands
- Retell a story
- Repeat choral parts of a story

Reading/Writing:
- Dictate a story similar to *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* using favorite foods
- Read number words (one to five)
- Read/recognize days of the week

Language structures:
- Monday, he ate..., Tuesday he ate...
- First, next, then, last
- Did he...?
- Yes, he did. No, he didn't.

Vocabulary:
- Review food words
- Egg, caterpillar, cocoon, butterfly
- first, next, then, last
- ate, crawl

Materials

- *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* by Eric Carle (NY: Crowell, 1987)
- picture cards of life cycle of a butterfly
- vocabulary pictures of foods
- magic markers, crayons, glue
- word cards for days of the week
- cotton ball sprayed with hair spray (optional)

7-½

A. Motivation

1. Show students the cover of the book, *The Very Hungry Caterpillar.* Ask:
   What is this?
   If the students don't respond correctly, say,
   This is a caterpillar.
   Tell them they will make caterpillars now.

2. Have students make an accordion fold caterpillar.
   Have students color the face. Show students how to accordion fold the strip to make the caterpillar. Paste the heads on the caterpillar bodies.

Hold up your finished caterpillar and say:
Look at my caterpillar.
Show me your caterpillar.
Make your caterpillar move.
How does the caterpillar move?
If the students don't know, say, "**He crawls.**"

B. Presentation

1. Show students the cover of *The Very Hungry Caterpillar.* Tell students this is a caterpillar, pointing to the word on the cover. Ask:
   What do you know about the caterpillar?
   Where can you see a caterpillar?
   Tell the students **caterpillars come from eggs.**

2. Show students a picture (from the picture cards) or model of an egg.
   What is this?
   (If students don't say, tell them, "**This is an egg.**")
   Ask Levels I and II (beginning):
   Is something inside?
   Ask Levels III and IV (intermediate):
   What is inside?

3. Read the title of the book. Ask students to predict what the story will be about. (Check to see if students know the word "**hungry.**")

4. Read the story *The Very Hungry Caterpillar,* showing students the pictures. When finished, ask students, **Did you guess the story? Were you right?**

5. Reread the story, encouraging students to join in chorally in the patterned parts. Use a cotton ball sprayed with hair spray (if available) to demonstrate what a cocoon looks and feels like.

6. Ask comprehension questions with **did**. Try to elicit short answers with **did** and **didn't**. Model if necessary.

   Did he eat an apple?

   Did he eat a pencil?

   Did he eat pears?

   Level I: Nods yes or no
   Level II: Yes or No
   Levels III, IV: Yes, he did. No, he didn't. Or number.
   Level IV: Yes, he ate....**How many did he eat?**

7. Focus on the past tense of **eat**. Point to pictures and say:

   What does the caterpillar eat?

   He eats plums.

   What did the caterpillar eat yesterday?

   Yesterday, he ate plums.

Use the pattern with some other food items (review) and have students repeat and/or create their own sentences

(continue pointing to pictures and/or use other food picture cards).

Did the caterpillar eat bananas? pears? strawberries?

Level I, II: Nods, says yes or no.

What did the caterpillar eat?

Level III, IV: He ate bananas... pears... strawberries.

Did the caterpillar grow big?

Level I: Nods yes

Level II: Yes.

Why did the caterpillar grow big?

Level III: He ate.

Level IV: He ate (a lot of) food.

8. Point to each picture in order and say:

First, it's an egg.

Next, it's a caterpillar.

Then, it's a cocoon.

Last, it's a butterfly.

9. Repeat this procedure, having students point to each picture and repeat the sequence aloud.

Level I: Points

Level II: Repeats key vocabulary

Level III, IV: Repeats sentences

(If you are using this lesson over two days, this would be a good break point. At the beginning of the next class, ask the students to retell the story briefly, reviewing the key vocabulary.)

C. Application

1. Distribute pictures of the egg, caterpillar, cocoon, and butterfly to students. As the students respond to questions, have the students come to the front of the room and stand in the correct sequence.
   Ask:
   Who has the butterfly?
   Who has the caterpillar?
   Who has the egg?
   Who has the cocoon?

   Ask the remaining students:
   What is first?
   What is next?
   What is next?
   What is last?
   Level I: Points to correct student
   Level II, III: Says egg, caterpillar, etc.
   Level IV: First, it is an egg, etc.

2. Number five areas of the blackboard to represent the days of the week (Monday through Friday). Ask students to repeat the days of the week. Distribute word cards for Monday through Friday; ask students to place the word cards under the appropriate number on the blackboard (make sure Monday is #1).

3. Distribute to students the picture cards showing the foods the caterpillar ate. Tell students:
   Find all the students who have the same food.
   Stand together.
   (Give students time to group themselves).
   Count the number of students in your group.
   Match the number of students in your group to the numbers on the board.
   Stand in front of the correct number or day of the week.

   Have the students retell the story by looking at their classmates. Model the first sentence:
   Monday he ate one apple.

4. Say:
   Who can tell me something the caterpillar ate?
   Do you eat...?
   What do you eat?
   What food do you like best?

   Have students draw their favorite food for the caterpillar to eat. Give students the art materials. After the pictures are complete, have students (with assistance, if necessary) label or dictate food labels or sentences for the pictures, *He ate....* Have students retell the story with their favorite foods.

D. Review/Assessment

1. Make a ladder chart on the blackboard like this.

   Monday, he ate _____.
   Tuesday, he ate _____.
   Wednesday, he ate _____.
   Thursday, he ate _____.
   Friday, he ate _____.
   Saturday, he ate _____.
   Sunday, he ate _____.

   Distribute to students picture cards showing the foods the caterpillar ate. Have students place pictures on blackboard in blanks. When the chart is complete, ask questions like:

   Did the caterpillar eat ....?

   What did he eat first?

   What did he eat next?

   What did he eat last?

   Level I: Nods yes or no; points to the picture.
   Level II: Says yes or no; names the food.
   Level III, IV: Yes, he did. No, he didn't. He ate _____.

2. Use ladder chart to assess knowledge of numbers.

   Ask questions like:

   Did the caterpillar eat two plums?

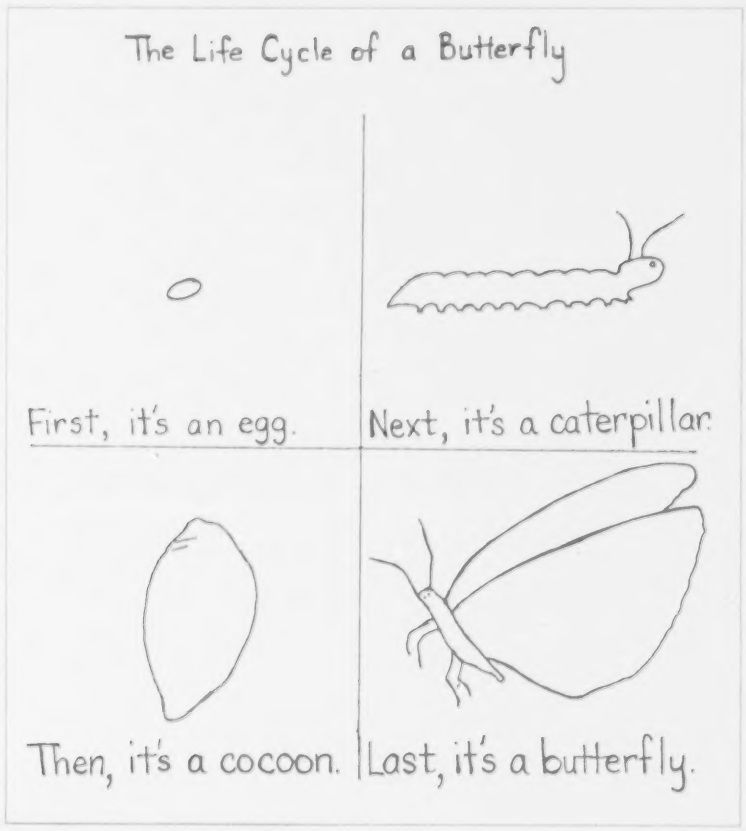
   Level I: Nods, says yes or no.

   How many plums did the caterpillar eat?

   Level II: Two.

   Level III, IV: He ate two plums.

3. Ask students to sequence the picture cards showing the life cycle of a butterfly.



Lesson adapted from Center for Applied Linguistics

8. Adapting Materials

Sometimes, written materials need to be adapted before students can comprehend them. If you are the ESL teacher, make sure to collaborate with your content colleagues to identify the language and/or academic difficulties that particular subjects or courses may present for the migrant students. Make sure each paragraph begins with a topic sentence to help students orient to the subject matter. Use shorter paragraphs that eliminate relative clauses, and the passive voice, if possible. Replace potentially ambiguous pronouns, ("it," "he/she") with the noun to which they refer ("Plymouth Rock," "Mr. Mustard"). Below are some guidelines for rewriting and adapting, as well as one social studies and one science adaptation.

- Put the topic sentence first, with supporting detail in the following sentences.
- Reduce the number of words in a sentence and the number of sentences in a paragraph.
- Consider word order. There is no need to be fancy with the position of clauses and phrases. Use the subject-verb-object pattern for most sentences.
- Simplify the vocabulary that will be used, but retain the key concepts and technical terms.
- Do not use a lot of synonyms in the body of the text.
- Introduce new vocabulary with clear definitions and repeat those new words as frequently as possible within the text passage. Try to help students connect new vocabulary with known vocabulary.
- Use the simpler verb tenses such as the present, simple past, and simple future.
- Use imperatives in materials that require following directions, such as a laboratory assignment.
- Write in the active voice, not the passive. For example, instead of writing "*The Declaration of Independence* was signed by John Hancock," write, "John Hancock signed *The Declaration of Independence.*"
- Use pronouns judiciously, only in cases where their antecedents are obvious.
- Be careful with indefinite words like "it," "there," and "that" at the beginning of sentences. Instead of writing "There are many children working on computers," simply write, "Many children are working on computers."
- Eliminate relative clauses with "who," "which," or "whom" wherever possible. Make the clause into a separate sentence.
- Minimize the use of negatives, especially in test questions (e.g., "Which of the following is *not* an example of ..."). If negation is necessary, use the negative with verbs (e.g., *don't go*), rather than negations like *no longer* or *hardly*.
- Preserve the features of the text that convey meaning. For example, it is important to familiarize the students with sequence markers (e.g., *first, second*), transition words (*e.g., although, however*), and prioritizing terms (*e.g., most important*), since they need to learn how to recognize and use them. The degree of sophistication for these features, however, should reflect the students' language proficiency.

9. Sample Adaptations

A. Upper Elementary Social Studies

The following is an original passage from *United States History 1600-1987* (INS, 1987: 6).

Virginia

The first permanent colony was Jamestown, Virginia (1607). These colonists came from England to try to make money by trading with Europe. They believed they would find gold and silver as the Spanish had found in South America, and then they would be rich. When they got to Jamestown, most of the men tried to find gold. They did not want to do the difficult jobs of building, planting food crops, and cutting firewood. One of the colonists, John Smith, saw how dangerous this could be. He took charge and made everyone work to survive. He is remembered for his good practical leadership. Still, less than half of the colonists survived the first few years. Only new settlers and supplies from England made it possible for the colony to survive. The discovery of tobacco as a cash crop to be traded in Europe guaranteed that the colony would do well.

Massachusetts

Many of the colonists came to America to try to find religious freedom. The Catholics had troubles in England and other parts of Europe. The rulers of these countries told their citizens that they must go to a specific church and worship in a certain way. Some people believed differently than their rulers and wanted to have their own churches. The first group to come to America for religious freedom was the Pilgrims in 1620. They sailed across the ocean in the *Mayflower* and landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Before landing at Plymouth, the Pilgrims agreed on the government they wanted. The agreement was called the Mayflower Compact. It had two important principles:

- the people would vote about the government and laws; and
- the people would accept whatever the majority chose.

The adaptation of the above passage was developed for advanced beginner/low intermediate-level LEP students.

The First Two Colonies

This map shows the first two permanent English colonies in North America.

This layout, using a map and organizing the information about each colony in a comparable manner, offers the LEP students access to the pertinent details of the passage. The map places the colony names in context. The inclusion of the compass symbol can lead to a class activity on map skills.

Both a language and a social studies teacher could use this adaptation in the classroom. The language teacher may ask students to use the information to write sentences comparing the two colonies or may encourage predictions about the seasons according to the different latitudes of the colonies. The social studies teacher may expand on this material by having groups of students research one of the colonies in more detail. Since the students will have already been presented with this background information, they have a schema upon which to add and link more facts and impressions.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

B. Using Outlines

The outline can be used by a language or a content teacher in a pre-reading activity. Students may be asked to discuss their knowledge of fossils first. Then the information they discuss could be referred to as the class reviews the outline. The pictorial adaptation can help explain key vocabulary. It also organizes the fossil sources into two categories—water and land. After a class discussion, the students may be asked to read the original passage.

The outline is a useful model for teaching study skills and students will become familiar with it if outlines are used regularly. As a post-reading activity, a teacher may ask students to create their own outline. This process should be introduced slowly. For example, the teacher may provide a partially completed outline the first time and ask students to finish it. The next time, students may work in pairs or small groups to create an outline. At a later date, students might write an outline on their own.

C. Elementary Science

The following is an original passage from *Science 3* (Scott, Foresman, 1986: 129).

Do You Know?

Some Buildings Contain Fossils

Buildings made of limestone or marble might contain fossils. You might find fossils in rock cut to make space for new houses. When a road is cut through a hill of rock, fossils can sometimes be found. Broken pieces of rock and stone that you find on the ground might contain fossils. You might also find fossils if you walk along a stream, a river, a lake, or an ocean.

If you go fossil hunting, like the people in the picture, watch for shapes that look like pieces of plants, animals, or shells. These shapes were formed from animals or plants that once were alive. You might even find the shape of an animal's footprints as a fossil. But you will probably not find many complete fossils. They get broken in the earth over time.

What can you do if you find fossils, such as those in the picture? First, record the place where you found your fossils. Then, find out the names of your fossils. You might find a book which will help you label the fossils that you find.

In some parts of the country, fossils are very common. If you observe carefully, you might find fossils that can help you learn how some animals and plants might have looked years ago.

The adaptation that follows is designed for third and fourth graders. It shows an outline of the original passage and a pictorial representation.

Fossils

I. Types of Fossils

A. Plants
B. Animals
C. Shells

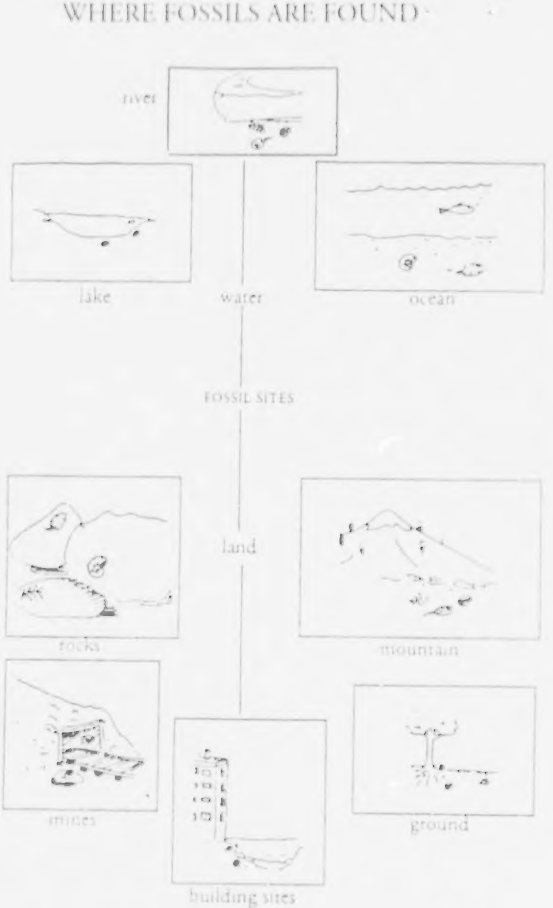
II. Places where fossils are found

A. Water
1. streams
2. rivers
3. lakes
4. oceans

B. Land
1. rocks
2. fields
3. mines
4. building sites

III. Ways to identify types of fossils

A. Record the place you find a fossil
B. Look in reference and library books
C. Take fossil to a museum



References

Chamot, Anna Uhl and O'Malley, Michael J. (1987). The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach: A Bridge to the Mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21 (2), 227-249.

Crandall, Jo Ann. (Ed.) (1987). ESL Through Content Area Instruction: Mathematics, Science, Social Studies. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Crandall, Jo Ann. (1987). Integrating Language and Content Instruction for Language Minority Students-Teacher Resource Guidelines (No. 4). National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, Jim. (1979). Linguistic Interdependence and Educational Development of Bilingual Children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222-251.

Short, Deborah J. (1991). How to Integrate Language and Content Instruction. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

5

Promoting Mathematics (By Any and All Means)

81

1. Introduction

New standards for mathematics require students to do much more than be able to perform mathematical calculations in isolation. There is now a much a broader view of what "mathematics" encompasses, including the application of mathematics in other disciplines such as science, the humanities, and social sciences; identifying problems that can be solved using mathematics; mathematical reasoning; and using mathematical tools such as graphs to communicate ideas. In addition, students must be able to demonstrate their understanding of math in a variety of ways, such as creating tables and charts, as well as writing descriptions of processes they have used to solve a problem.

In contrast to math taught as computation, the more recent understanding of achievement in math necessitates much more application of computation in a variety of situations, as well as communication and cooperation among students. Our earlier view of math as a universal system relatively independent of language has been replaced by the view that math, like other content subjects, has a specialized vocabulary, common grammatical patterns and rules for constructing arguments.

These new definitions of mathematical literacy impact all of our students who must learn "to speak math," that is, learn a specialized vocabulary, particular grammatical constructions, as well as learn to defend solutions to problems. Many students, including LEP students who are still acquiring academic English, need explicit and detailed practice in how to understand word problems, use strategies to find solutions, and communicate their solutions mathematically and in writing. All students benefit from hands-on, cooperative math projects that grow out of real-world situations and have multiple paths toward solutions.

2. Cultural differences in math symbols or in problem-solving procedures

In some Spanish-speaking countries, a period is used to separate multiples of a thousand, and a comma is used in decimals. The opposite is the case in the United States. For example:

"five thousand, four hundred and thirty seven" is represented as 5.437 in some Spanish-speaking countries but as 5,437 in the United States

"four and one half" is represented as 4,5 in Spanish, but as 4.5 in the United States

The operation of division is represented as $4\overline{)32}$ in the United States, but as $32 \mid 4$ in some Spanish-speaking countries. $\quad 8$

Cultural differences in math curriculum

In the United States, the units of measurement (pounds, feet, inches) are unfamiliar to students who have learned the metric system. In addition, U.S. schools devote extensive practice to fractions, in part because of our system of measurement. U.S. teachers often refer to "half a foot"; international teachers may refer to "5 millimeters" rather than "half a centimeter."

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

3. Instructional suggestions for teaching math to LEP students

The lessons and suggestions that are included in this section of the *Help! Kit* exemplify a multifaceted approach to teaching math to all students, based on the goals of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM):

1. **Learn the value of math.** Students should learn the relationships and applications of mathematics in academic subjects such as science, social science, and the humanities, and the applications of math in everyday life.

2. **Become confident in one's own math ability.** Students should learn to use math to solve real-world problems.

3. **Become math problem-solvers.** Students should learn to solve complex problems that require sustained effort over a period of time, and tackle problems that require cooperation with others to solve.

4. **Learn to communicate mathematically.** Students should learn to use math symbols and tools (such as equations or graphs) to communicate mathematical ideas in writing and in discussion.

5. **Learn to reason mathematically.** Students should learn to make predictions, gather evidence, and build an argument to support their conclusions.

The example lessons in this section demonstrate the NCTM goals in that the lessons involve hands-on projects, manipulatives, the solving of word problems, and practice with the language of math.

Hands-on projects

To achieve these goals, students should learn through hands-on, cooperative activities and discussion based on real-world situations. Involve groups of students in researching questions of importance to the school community, for example, doing a user survey of cafeteria menus. Students survey peers to create graphs of favorite foods, together with a written and oral report of the results of their survey. This information is then shared with cafeteria staff.

Manipulatives

In the classroom, make a variety of objects and purchased math manipulatives available so that students can gradually come to understand abstractions. For example, allow students to play with the concept of place value through physically grouping beans or counters into groups of 10s and 1s to represent numbers such as 34.

4. Math-specific language and problem solving

Explicitly practice math language, such as "table," "area," or "operation," distinguishing the mathematical definitions of these terms from their use in everyday language. Provide extensive practice with the steps of problem solving following the examples presented in the sample lessons below. Have students work in groups to solve and then discuss problems, and then have them create their own word problems. Practice with grammatical constructions found in academic or formal writing such as comparatives or sentences with "if..then" clauses. Ask LEP students who have learned other methods for solving problems in their home countries to demonstrate those methods.

5. Problem solving

The steps in solving a mathematical problem are all important. Skip one and you miss part of the solution. The following are steps for teaching problem solving to LEP students that would be good in solving any math problem.

How to teach problem-solving steps to LEP students

1. **Understand the question**. Teach students to understand the problem through elaboration and imagery. Then rewrite the question as a statement.

2. **Find the needed information**. Help students to use selective attention (e.g., disregard irrelevant data or number distractors to find needed information).

3. **Choose a plan**. Have students identify the operation and what the problem calls for, then choose a plan, (e.g., write a number sentence, identify parts of the problem, work with a peer, make a table, make a list).

4. **Solve the problem**. Students write out the steps of the problem and solve it, using cooperation to review the steps they have taken.

5. **Check the answer**. Students use a variety of approaches to verify their answer.

6. Adapted math lessons for ESOL students

A. ESOL Adapted Math Lesson

Grade 1

Materials:

index cards for each student
one-hole punch for each student
a pencil for each student
overhead projector

Lesson Objectives:

Students will demonstrate an understanding of basic addition facts.

Procedure (5 minutes):

1. Teacher provides each student with a hand-held hole punch and an index card.

2. Teacher models using her own hole punch and index card.

3. Using TPR, teacher introduces and reinforces basic vocabulary. Teacher says,
   "Look at my hole punch." (She holds up the hole punch.)
   "Show me your hole punch." "Hold up your hole punch." (Students hold up hole punches.)
   "Look at my index card." (She holds up her index card.)
   "Show me your index card." "Hold up your index card". (Students hold up index cards.)
   "Show me your hole punch." (She waits, then models by holding up her hole punch.)
   "Show me your index card." (She waits, then models by holding up her index card.)

4. Still using TPR, the teacher continues.
   "Watch me punch three holes in my card." (While the teacher punches, she counts.)
   "One, two, three."

5. Teacher places her punched card on the overhead. The light will shine through the punched holes. She points to the holes and counts, "One, two, three holes."

6. Teacher says,
   "Punch three holes in your card." (Using another card, teacher models while students punch their cards.)

7. Teacher says,
   "Count the holes with me. Count the holes in your card." (She points to the overhead holes.) "One, two, three holes."

8. Teacher moves the punched card on the overhead to the left half of the screen. On the right half of the screen where the light is not covered, she writes the numeral "3" next to the three holes as she again counts to three.

9. "Look at the three holes in my card. Look at the three holes in your card." (Points and models.)

10. "Watch me punch two holes in my card. Watch me punch two holes under the three holes." (Teacher removes card from overhead and punches two holes in her card under the three holes she previously punched. She replaces the card on the overhead and covers the three holes previously punched with another card so only the two just-punched holes show through.)

11. "Look at the two holes in my card; one, two holes." (Points and counts.)
    "Punch two holes in your card." (Models and counts.)

12. Teacher moves the card to the left of the overhead screen and counts the two holes showing through on the overhead. Teacher writes the numeral "2" to the right of the two holes under the three holes.

13. Teacher removes the index card covering the three holes. She counts,
"One, two, three, holes..." (She points to the numeral "3".)
"...plus..." (She adds an addition sign to the left of the numeral "2".)
"...one, two holes." (She points to the numeral "2".)
"Three plus two..." (She points to each as she says it.)
"Count all the holes with me. One, two, three, four, five." (Points and counts; repeats.)

14. "Three plus two equals (points to each as she says it then writes the equals lines under the "2" to form the equation) FIVE!" (She writes the numeral "5" under the equation on the right side of the screen.)

15. "Pick up your pencil. Count with me." (Students pick up pencils.)

16. Teacher covers equation on right of screen. Teacher covers two bottom holes, leaving only the three holes showing through.

"One, two, three. Write the number 3 on your card." (Teacher uncovers the numeral "3" on the right of the overhead. Then the teacher repeats the last command and models by writing the numeral "3" on her card. She shows what she has written on the card to the class. Students write on their cards.)

"Three plus..." (She uncovers the addition sign and writes one on her card. Students write on their cards.)

(Teacher uncovers the two holes)
"One, two..." (She writes "2" in her equation and uncovers the "2" on the screen. Students write on their cards.)

"...equals...." (She uncovers the equals sign and writes one on her card. Students write on their cards.)

"...five." (Uncovers, writes and models. Students write.)

17. Students now have a card with three holes punched in a line with two holes punched under them and the simple addition fact 3+2=5 written on it. Follow the procedures to explore two other simple addition facts: 6+3=9 and 4+3=7.

(Total lesson time: 20 minutes.)

Follow-Up Lesson

Teacher reviews, following the above procedures for one equation, then repeats, reducing modeling following the model outlined below:

1. Teacher says, "Six...plus...three."

2. Students punch one line of six holes followed by one line of three holes.

3. Teacher puts punched card on the overhead and says,

"Six..." (points to and counts six holes)
"...plus three..." (points to and counts three holes)
"...equals...one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, NINE!" (points and counts)

Students will join in counting aloud at their own pace depending on their levels of language proficiency. They should be encouraged to join in when they are ready, but not forced.

4. Teacher and students write equation.

Lesson adapted from Lynda Franco, Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics.

B. ESOL Adapted Math Lesson

Grade 2
Basic Bar Graph Activity

Materials

- an apple, an orange, and a banana (other fruit pieces may be added or substituted)
- survey sheet (sample follows) for each student and an overhead copy for the teacher
- worksheet (sample follows) for each student and an overhead copy for the teacher
- a pencil for each child
- colored markers or crayons for each child
- an overhead and markers

Objectives

- The students will survey the class orally to gather information.
- The students will compile information gathered into a bar graph.
- The students will explain (in writing or orally) the meaning of the data displayed on their bar graphs.

Procedure

This lesson is a practice lesson that follows an introductory lesson about bar graphs. The students have looked at bar graphs in a previous lesson and discussed the meaning of the information displayed in those graphs. In this lesson, the students will gather information and create their own bar graphs for display and interpretation.

1. The teacher shows the class the apple, orange, and banana. The teacher names each fruit as she picks it up and shows it to the class.

2. To elicit oral answers, the teacher asks individual students if they like the fruits:

   Teacher: "Adela, look at this apple. Do you like apples?"

   Adela: "Yes, I like apples." (Teacher accepts any comprehensible answer such as "Yes," or "Yes, I like," and continues by modeling.)
   Teacher: "Yes, I like apples, too. Adela likes apples."

   (Teacher repeats with another student and continues with the remaining two fruits.)

3. The teacher makes a statement.

   Teacher: "I like apples best. Francisco, which fruit do you like best?"
   Francisco: (for example) "I like bananas best."
   (Teacher accepts any comprehensible answer)
   Teacher: "Francisco likes bananas best. I like apples best."

   Teacher repeats, asking a few more students their preference of the three fruits, and models acceptable answers.

4. Teacher tells the class that today they will be gathering information and making a bar graph to display what they find out. The teacher asks the class to listen to a question, but to think of their answer only. They will have a chance to say their answer soon. Here is the question:

   "Which is your favorite fruit?"

5. Teacher provides each student with a copy of a survey sheet. (See Sample on p. 89.) The survey sheet has the name of each child in the class listed with the teacher's name at the top. (Providing sheets with the names in different orders will assist greatly in this activity.)

6. The teacher displays a copy of the survey sheet on the overhead. The teacher asks herself:

   "Which is your favorite fruit?"

She provides the answer. "My favorite fruit is an apple."
Teacher checks the "apple" column next to her name.

7. Teacher directs the students to get up and go around the room asking every student in the class, "Which is your favorite fruit." Teacher reminds each student to give the same answer every time he or she is asked the question. Teacher monitors group activity, directs students to check the correct box and include all students and completes the activity herself, checking on her overhead copy.

8. When everyone has been asked, the students return to their seats. The teacher displays her overhead copy, covering it so only the information in one column at a time shows.

9. Teacher directs, "Count how many people say the apple is their favorite fruit." Teacher counts down the column and writes the number at the bottom in the "total" box. Teacher directs students to do the same on their papers.

10. Teacher uncovers the next column. Teacher directs, "Count how many people say the banana is their favorite fruit." This time the teacher directs students to count and write on their papers first. Then she counts her column and writes the numbers at the bottom.

11. Teacher uncovers the last column and follows procedures above to have students total the column.

12. Teacher asks questions using "pair share" strategy. (Put students in pairs and have them discuss the answer to the questions before calling on a student to answer.)
"Which fruit do students like best?"
"Which fruit do students like least?"
"How many students like apples best?"
"How many students like oranges best?"

13. Teacher provides graphing sheet and markers or crayons. Teacher displays her graphing sheet on the overhead.

14. Teacher asks:

"How many students like apples best?"
(students answer)

15. Teacher counts UP from the bottom of the "apple" column on the worksheet to the number the class found. She draws a line at the top of that number box. Then she colors in the column (using any choice of color) up to that number to form a bar. Teacher directs students to do the same.

16. Teacher asks, "How many students like bananas best?"
(students answer)

17. Teacher directs students to make the bar for the banana column. Then she does the same on her overhead copy.

18. Repeat procedure for the remaining orange column.

Each student now has a completed bar graph of the information gathered in the activity. Teacher asks a student to review the steps followed to complete this activity. (This may be followed up by a written explanation at the teacher's discretion.)

19. Teacher asks, "What do our graphs show us?" (Students respond in pairs, writing their ideas on a separate piece of paper.)

The teacher then asks pairs to answer the question. Teacher writes ideas on the board. For example:
More students like apples than bananas.
Students like apples best.

Lesson adapted from Lynda Franco, Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics.

Follow-Up Activity

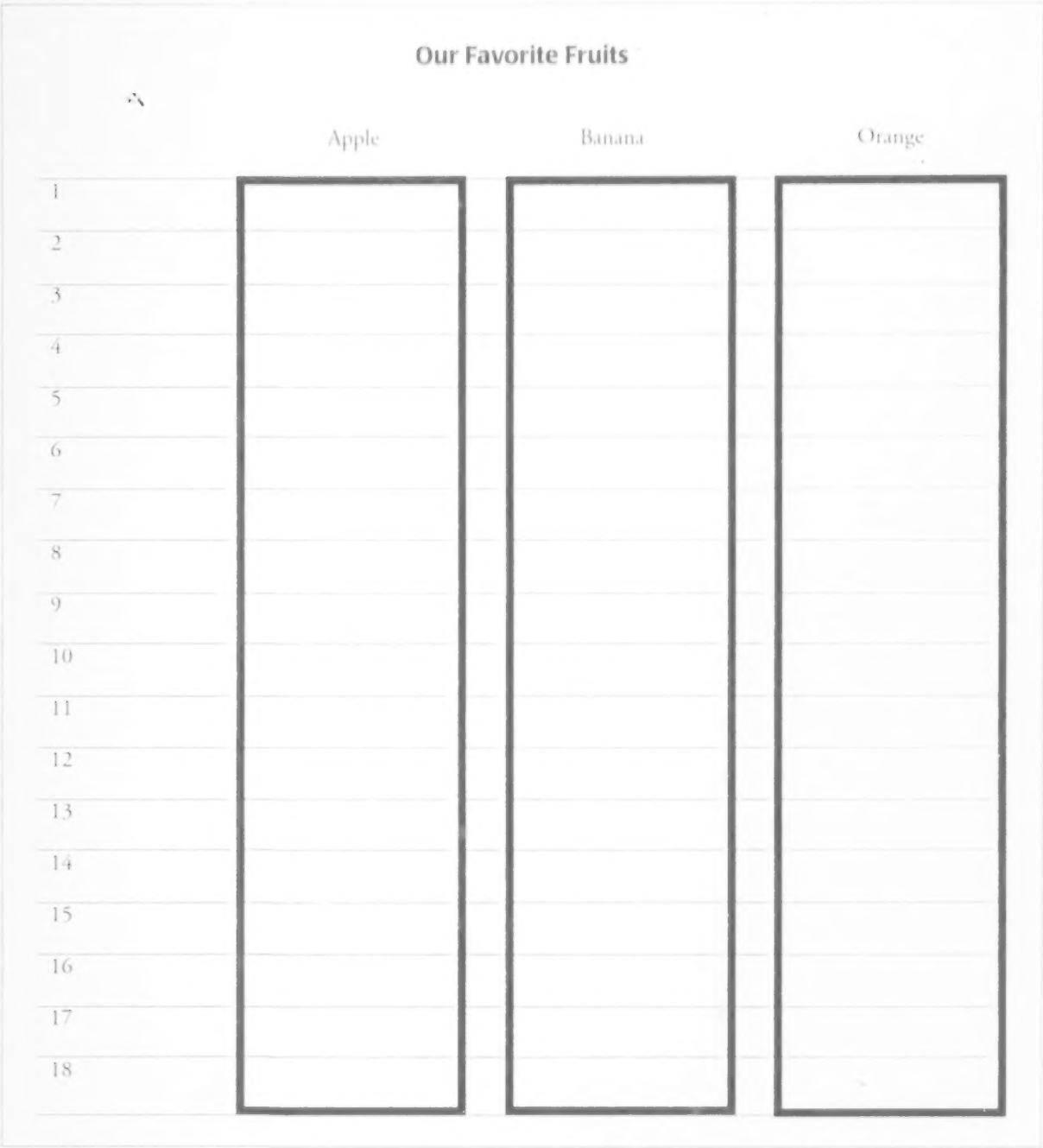
The activity following this lesson should repeat the same procedures with five different fruits (for example, a mango, a kiwi, a peach, a cherry, and a grapefruit). This time the students will need less modeling and can get to the information gathering sooner. Display the graphs created along with the explanations of the meanings of the data.

Students should be asked to create their own title for their graphs. They can also be asked to create their own graph sheet if provided with rulers.

Sample Survey Sheet

	Which is Your Favorite?		
	Apple	Banana	Orange
Teacher's name			
Ana			
Josefa			
Chabeli			
Carlos			
Luis			
Marisol			
Kim			
Quan			
Antonio			
Alexa			
Barney			
Total			

Sample Graphing Sheet



C. The Fence

You Will Need

About 25 toothpicks. (Paper clips, beans, crayons, wooden blocks, etc., will work as long as all pieces are the same size.)

The Problem

Your school is planning to build a new sandbox for the playground. A low fence needs to be built around the sandbox to keep the sand in. The builders need to know how much fence material to buy. The principal knows you like math and has asked you to help with the project.

The sandbox will be a rectangle.

A rectangle looks like this:

It will be 6 feet long and 4 feet wide.

How many feet of material will be needed to build the fence around the sandbox?

Pretend that each toothpick is one foot long.

Make a rectangle with your toothpicks that is 6 feet long and 4 feet wide.

Count the number of "feet" there are around the outside of the rectangle.

How many feet of material did you use to build your fence?

If you used 20 feet of materials, you built a perfect fence.

Reach for the Stars

How many sides are 6 feet long? How many sides are 4 feet long?

Can you solve the problem without counting toothpicks?

On the Job

All kinds of jobs require measuring and counting skills: carpenters, electricians, and engineers need these skills to build houses, office buildings, and schools. Farmers need to be able to measure the land for their crops. A seamstress or tailor needs to be able to measure cloth.

Count on Me was supported, in part, by the National Science Foundation. 1993 Community Television for Southern California (KCET). All rights reserved. Printed in U.S.A.)

C-1. La Cerca

Udin. Ecesitará

Aproximadamente 25 palillos de diente. (Tanto los sujetapapeles, frijoles, lápices de pastel, bloques de madera, etc., funcionarán mientras todas las piezas sean iguales de largo.)

Su escuela está planeando construir una nueva caja de arena para el campo de juego. Se necesita construir una cerca baja alrededor de la caja de arena para mantener la arena adentro. Los constructores necesitan saber cuánto material tienen que comprar para la cerca. El director sabe que a Ud. le gustan las matemáticas y le ha pedido que ayude con el proyecto.

La caja de arena será rectangular.

Este esun rectángulo:

La caja se medirá 6 pies de largo y 4 pies de ancho.

¿Cuántos pies de materiales se necesitarán para construir la cerca alrededor de la caja de arena?

Suponga que cada palillo de diente es un pie de largo.

Haga un rectángulo con sus palillos de diente que sea 6 pies de largo y 4 pies de ancho.

Cuente el número de "pies" que hay alrededor de la parte de afuera del rectángulo.

¿Cuántos pies de material usó para construir la cerca?

Si usó 20 pies de material, construyó una cerca perfecta.

Alcance las Estrellas

¿Cuántos lados son 6 pies de largo? ¿Cuántos lados son 4 pies de largo?

¿Puede Ud. solucionar el problema sin contar los palillos de diente?

En El Trabajo

Gran cantidad de trabajos requieren medidas y habilidades de contar: carpinteros, electricistas, e ingenieros necesitan estas habilidades para construir casas, edificios de oficinas y escuelas. Los agricultores tienen que ser capaces de medir la tierra para sus cosechas. La costurera o el sastre necesita poder medir la tela.

D. Guess What!

You Will Need

Uncooked pasta in 3 colors, paper, pencil, a bag you can't see through.

Game One: For Younger Children

You will need several pieces of pasta in 2 different colors.

Player one puts 7 pasta pieces in a bag. The pieces can be any combination of the 2 colors: 0 & 7, 1& 6, 2 & 5, 3 & 4.

Player two dips his or her hand into the bag and, without looking, pulls out one piece of pasta. *Player two* then records the draw and replaces the piece of pasta in the bag.

Player one shakes the bag.

After 4 rounds of pulling, recording, and replacing, **player two** makes one guess about the combination in the bag. If the guess is wrong, **player two** plays 3 more rounds and guesses again.

If still not successful, **player two** pulls 2 more rounds and guesses again.

This game can be varied by changing the total number of pasta pieces and the possible combinations.

Game Two For Older Children

You will need several pieces of pasta in 3 different colors.

Player one puts 12 pasta pieces in a bag. The pieces can be any combination of colors such as 0,3,9; 4,4,4; 2,5,5; etc. There are many more possibilities.

The rest of the game is played in the same way as for game one.

On the Job

Probability is the chance that a certain thing will happen depending on the conditions. A weather forecaster uses probability to predict the chance for rain. A dietician uses probability to predict how much of a certain food to prepare for your school cafeteria. A store owner uses probability to figure out how much stock to order.

Count on Me was supported, in part, by the National Science Foundation. 1993 Community Television for Southern California (KCET). All rights reserved. Printed in U.S.A.)

D-1. ¡Adivine Que!

Ud. Necesitará

Pasta cruda (fideos, macaronis) en tres colores, papel para sacar notas, un lápiz, y una bolsa de papel opaco para esconder los pedacitos de pasta.

Primer Juego: Para niños menores

Ud. necesitará muchos pedacitos de pasta de dos colores diferentes.

El primer jugador pone 7 pedacitos de la pasta en la bolsa. Los pedacitos pueden ser de cualquier combinación de los dos colores: 0 & 7, 1 & 6, 2 & 5, 3 & 4.

El segundo jugador mete su mano adentro de la bolsa y, sin mirar saca un pedacito de pasta. Entonces *el segundo jugador* toma nota del pedacito que se sacó y vuelve a poner el pedacito de pasta en la bolsa.

El primer jugador sacude la bolsa.

Después de cuatro vueltas sacando, tomando notas, y reponiendo, *el segundo jugador* trata de adivinar la combinación en la bolsa. Si no acierta, *el segundo jugador* juega tres vueltas más y trata de adivinar otra vez.

Si todavía no tiene éxito, *el segundo jugador* saca 2 vueltas más y trata de adivinar otra vez.

Este juego se puede variar cambiando el total de pedacitos de la pasta y las posibles combinaciones.

Segundo Juego: Para niños mayores

Ud. necesitará muchos pedacitos de pasta en tres colores diferentes.

El primer jugador pone 12 pedacitos de pasta en la bolsa. Los pedacitos pueden ser de cualquier combinación de colores, tales como 0,3,9; 4,4,4; 2, 5,5; etc. Hay muchas más posibilidades.

El resto del juego se juega de la misma manera que el primer juego.

En El Trabajo

La probabilidad es la casualidad de que cierta cosa pasará dependiendo de las condiciones. Un pronosticador del clima utiliza la probabilidad para predecir la casualidad de lluvia. Un dietético usa la probabilidad para predecir cuánta cantidad de cierta comida debe preparar para la cafetería de su escuela. El dueño de una tienda usa la probabilidad para calcular qué cantidad de mercancía ordenar.

E. Shape Town

Language Focus: The city; shapes
Critical/creative thinking component
Application skills: estimating how many beans will fit on and around a shape
Analysis skills: comparing the frequency of shapes seen in the environment
Content area: Math
Materials: One copy of "Shape Town" blackline master for each student; different shapes cut from construction paper; beans; one copy of "Most Often Seen" blackline master for each student.

Part 1: Shape Town

Stimuli Directions: Distribute copies of blackline master "Shapetown." Call students' attention to the illustration by displaying it on the overhead projector. Use the illustration and stimuli given below to introduce the primary activity. Select stimuli according to the linguistic level of the group.

Preproduction Stimuli

Prompt nonverbal, active participation.

Show me an oval-shaped house. (Lead action.)
Open one of the diamond-shaped windows. (Point to window and pantomime opening it.)
Push one of the circular shopping carts from the grocery store. (Point to cart and pantomime pushing it.)
Pull out some of the mail from the mail bag shaped like a hexagon. (Point to mailbag and pantomime pulling out a letter.)
Trace the perimeter of a square stop sign. (Point to stop sign and use your finger to trace.)

Early Production Stimuli

Prompt one- or two-word responses.

Is the diamond-shaped window (point) open or closed?
Are the rectangular tires (point) on a car or an airplane?
Is the circular mail (point) near the post office or the bank?
Is the traffic signal (point) shaped like a circle or a triangle?
Is the stop sign (point) shaped like a rectangle or a square?

Speech Emergence Stimuli

Prompt short answers to literal questions.

What shape are the homes? (Trace the outline of a home with your finger.)
What shape are the tires? (Trace the outline of a tire with your finger.)
Where are the circular shopping carts? (Point to the front of the grocery store.)
What is shaped like a hexagon? (Trace the outline of a tree or the mailbag.)
What is shaped like a square? (Trace the outline of the stop sign.)

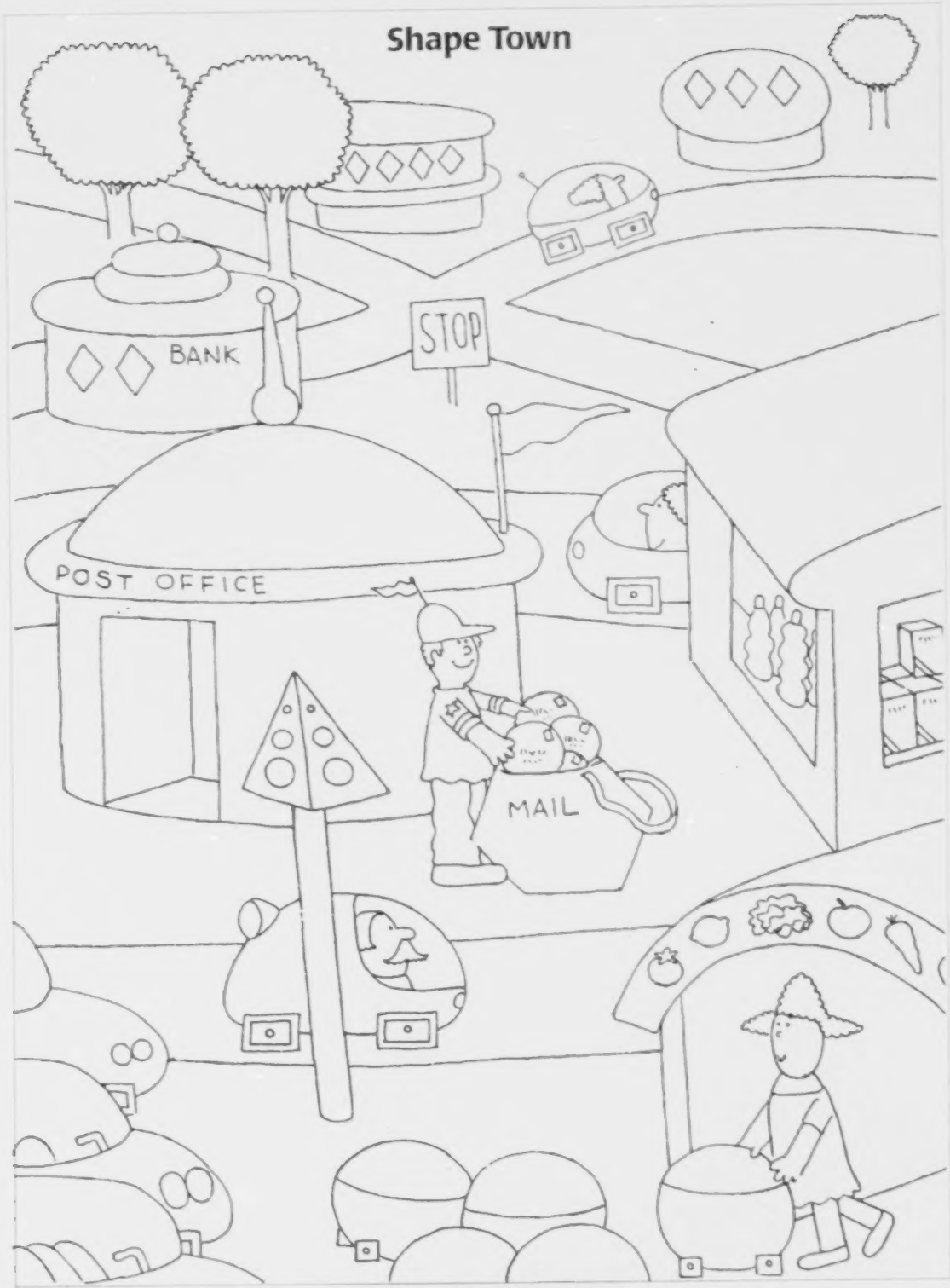
Intermediate Fluency Stimuli

Prompt detailed answers to higher-level thinking questions.

What might be different about living in an oval-shaped house?
Why do you think our shopping carts are rectangular instead of circular?
What shapes would you use to construct a traffic signal? Why?
How are a triangle and a square alike? How are they different?
Do you think that shapes were invented or that they just naturally appeared in the environment? Why?

Most Often Seen

Look at the shapes.
Rank the shapes by how often you see them in a day.
Give the shape you see most often the number 1.


Shape Town
BANK
STOP
POST OFFICE
MAIL

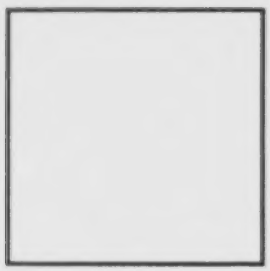
Most Often Seen

Look at these shapes.
Rank the shapes by how often you see them in a day.
Give the shape you see most often the number 1.

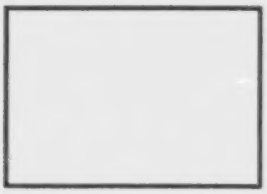
Lesson adapted from *Curious and Creative: Critical Thinking and Language Development*, 1993, Nancy Sokol Green, Addison-Wesley.

Heart _____

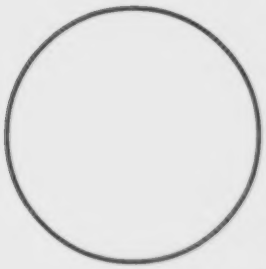
Triangle _____



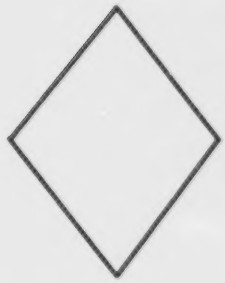
Square _____



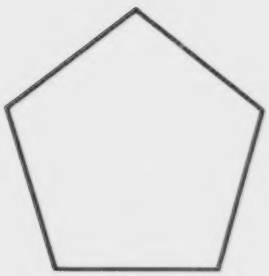
Rectangle _____



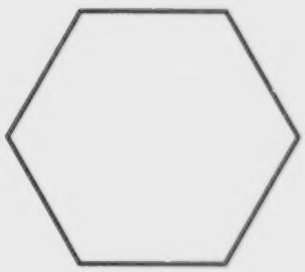
Circle _____



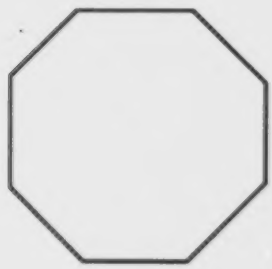
Diamond _____



Pentagon _____



Hexagon _____



Octagon _____

References for this section

Chamot, Anna Uhl, & O'Malley, J. Michael. (1994). *The CALLA Handbook: Implementing the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Crandall, JoAnn (Ed.). (1995). *ESL through Content-Area Instruction.* McHenry, Illinois: Delta Systems.

Irons, C., & Burnett, J. (1993). *Mathematics from Many Cultures.* San Francisco: Mimosa Publications, 800-443-7389.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. (1989). *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics.* Reston, Virginia: NCTM.

Books for parents and teachers

Clapp, Stephen G., & Chauncey, A. Cochran. (1991). *Helping Your Child at Home with Mathematics.* New York: MacMillan McGraw Hill.

Schreiner, Bryson. (1974). *Arithmetic Games and Aids for Early Childhood.* Hayward, CA: Activity Resources Company, Inc.

Stenmark, Jean Kerr, Thompson, Virginia, & Cossey, Ruth. (1986). *Family Math.* Berkeley, CA: Lawrence Hall of Science, University of California.

Books for children

Anno, Mitsumasa. (1987). *Anno's Math Games.* New York: Philomel.

Clement, Rod. (1991). *Counting on Frank.* Milwaukee, WI: Gareth Stevens.

Feldman, Judy. (1991). *Shapes in Nature.* Chicago, IL: Children's Press.

Orii, Eiji, & Masako. (1987). *Circles.* Milwaukee, WI: Gareth Stevens.

Pallotta, Jerry. (1991). *The Icky Bug Counting Book.* Watertown, MA: Charlesbridge.

Sharp, Richard M., & Metzner, Seymour. (1990). *The Sneaky Square and 113 Other Math Activities for Kids.* Blue Ridge Summit, PA: TAB.

6

Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?

1. Overview

In this section, we offer suggestions on how you as classroom teachers can **identify** LEP students (See Introduction, p. 10), how you can make decisions about **placing** them in a classroom or instructional program, and how you can **assess** students' progress in your classroom—both in learning academic content and in acquiring English.

Research (Collier, 1995) has shown that programs that are effective in teaching language minority students contain the following elements:

1. active learning of academic concepts through hands-on, collaborative instruction
2. academic instruction in English and in the native language (when possible) that is cognitively complex, that is, instruction that encourages students to use academic skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation
3. a positive social environment that integrates language minority students with their English-speaking peers.

These elements of instruction must be linked to equally complex forms of assessment, so that students' progress in academic subjects, language acquisition, and social integration may be assessed.

2. Placing LEP students in appropriate levels of instruction

After determining that a student does speak a language other than English at home, the next questions to consider concern the child's language proficiency in English and the home language, and the child's knowledge of academic content gained in prior schooling.

English language proficiency: oral communication and literacy

A typical sequence for assessing language proficiency begins with the child's proficiency in understanding spoken English and in responding to English. If the child can communicate orally in English in a face-to-face conversation or on a test of oral proficiency, the next step is to determine the child's literacy, that is, the child's facility in reading and writing English at grade level.

It is important to remember that a student who can understand and respond orally in English in a face-to-face conversation may not be proficient enough in academic written English to be placed in a grade-level English language classroom. Within one to two years, LEP students can acquire social and conversational English from their classmates. However, it may take a student from five to ten years to acquire literacy in academic English, so that the student can understand textbook presentations of content material in science, math, social studies, and language arts.

English proficiency: academic content

After evaluating the student's knowledge of oral English and literacy, the next step is to assess knowledge of content subjects in English. Because each subject has its own specialized vocabulary and grammatical structures, a student who understands basic oral English may still need extra support in learning content subjects in English in grade-level classrooms, especially in the upper grade levels. If the student studied in a bilingual program, you may need to assess content knowledge in the student's home language.

If the student and parents or guardians come to school on the first day, you might ask the following questions about the student's academic background:

1. What subjects did you study in your other schools? Which languages did you study in?

2. Which books did you use in your other schools? Which languages were the books written in?

3. Did you study in a bilingual program? If you did, which subjects did you study in your home language, and which subjects did you study in English?

Spanish:

1. ¿Cuáles materias estudiabas antes de venir a esta escuela? ¿En cuáles idiomas estudiabas?

2. ¿Cuáles libros de texto usabas en tus estudios? ¿En cuáles idiomas estaban escritos?

3. ¿Estudiabas en un programa bilingue? En el programa bilingue, ¿cuáles cursos estudiabas en español y cuáles en inglés?

3. Assessment and Instruction

Classroom-based assessment informs teachers about student progress; this type of authentic assessment can be so integrated into our instruction that similar activities serve as both instruction and assessment. We can think of authentic assessment as the "clean plate test." If your family or guests have enjoyed a meal, you don't need to give them multiple choice questions to find out how they liked your cooking. Just see how many empty plates are left on the table.

As you build multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge into instruction, you have also automatically built in assessment of student progress precisely connected to your curriculum. This type of assessment also provides important feedback on instruction, allowing teachers to adjust to meet the needs of all students. In addition, multiple types of assessment should include standardized measures that demonstrate that language minority students are attaining district, state, or federal standards for academic achievement.

CLASSROOM TO ESL INSTRUCTOR COMMUNICATION FORM

Student Name _____

Date _____

Class _____

Teacher _____

1. How would you assess the student's progress during the past month?

(1-5 with 5 being the highest) 1 2 3 4 5

Please circle one of the numbers.

	Low				High
• Oral Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
• Reading Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
• Completes Writing Assignments	1	2	3	4	5
• Works Independently	1	2	3	4	5
• Asks for help **when needed**	1	2	3	4	5
• Successful completion of tests/assessments	1	2	3	4	5

2. What would you like the ESL teacher to help the student with during the coming weeks or months?

Comments: _____

_____

_____

Chart 1

4. Adapting content assessment for LEP students

It is important to remember that students who are still in the process of learning English must be supported in learning grade-level academic content. They should be challenged to exercise critical thinking skills, such as analysis or synthesis, during all stages of language acquisition, even while they are in the preproduction stage.

At the same time, understanding of academic subjects must be assessed in a way that allows students to demonstrate their knowledge somewhat independently of their fluency in English. Three techniques for assessing content while reducing language difficulties are scaffolding, differentiated scoring, and visible criteria (O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996, pp. 166-167). **Scaffolding assessment** allows students various ways to demonstrate their knowledge: exhibits or projects, graphic organizers (diagrams or semantic maps), organized lists of concepts, labeled tables or graphs completed by the students, or short answers. Students should be allowed extended time limits for completing scaffolded assessments.

A second method for assessment is **differentiated scoring**, that is, scoring students separately on content knowledge and on language. This also integrates assessment of language arts in other content areas. Students might be scored on sentence structure and the use of key vocabulary from the lesson. In addition, they would be scored on how well they understood key concepts, how accurate their answers were, and how well they demonstrated the processes they used to derive their answers.

A third method for adapting assessment is to use **visible or explicit criteria** for scoring. Students become familiar with scoring criteria before the actual assessment is given, especially if they will be scored separately on content knowledge and language conventions (differentiated scoring). Students might be involved in creating criteria for a good science report or steps in solving a word problem. They should practice applying these criteria to actual examples, in order to become familiar with the criteria.

ESL Student Evaluation

Classroom Performance in Content Area Subjects

STUDENT _____ DATE OF BIRTH _____ DATE _____
CLASSROOM TEACHER _____ GRADE _____ COURSE _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER:

To help evaluate the above student's overall achievement, please use the following scale to rate his/her performance in your class. *Please complete separate sheets for math, science, and social studies.*

CATEGORY 1: Rate the student's level of performance in relation to the concepts and skills identified in the graded course of study.

1	2	3	4	5
below grade level		at grade level		above grade level

CATEGORY 2: Rate the student's work habits in your class. Does he/she bring required materials to class? Understand and follow directions? Ask for assistance?

Cooperate and interact positively with other students?

1	2	3	4	5
no effort		average		courteous, hard-working

_____ Please check here if student is not participating in the content area subject due to pull-out or any other reason.

_____ Grade in class to date.

5. Performance-Based and Portfolio Assessment

Definition of Terms

Informal or Alternative Assessment. These are not technical terms, so there are no uniformly accepted definitions. **Informal** and **alternative** assessment are used interchangeably, and indicate the following: any method, other than a standardized test, of determining what a student knows or can do; activities that reflect tasks typical of classroom instruction and real-life settings, and that represent actual progress toward curricular goals and objectives; and activities that are monitored and recorded in some way, either by teacher observation, peer observation or student self-assessment.

It should also be noted that informal and alternative assessment measures are by definition criterion-referenced, (e.g., learners are classified according to whether or not they are able to successfully perform a set of tasks, or meet a set of objectives). Norm-referenced tests, on the other hand, relate one learner's performance against the normative performance of a group. Standardized tests can be either norm- or criterion-referenced.

Performance-Based Assessment is a type of informal or alternative assessment, and is characterized by activities that are specifically designed to assess performance on one or more instructional tasks; activities in which students demonstrate specific skills and competencies are rated on a predetermined scale of achievement or proficiency; and activities that are rated by a teacher or other professional, rather than by peer or self-evaluation.

Portfolio Assessment is a technique for qualitative evaluation. It is characterized by the maintenance of descriptive records of a variety of student work over time; the purposeful and systematic collection of student work that reflects growth toward the achievement of specific curricular objectives; and the inclusion of student self-evaluation as well as teacher evaluation.

Portfolio assessment in ESL has been used mainly to follow progress in reading and writing. Portfolios can, but need not necessarily, contain samples of student writing, records of oral language progress, records on reading achievement over time, and information on the results of formal achievement tests.

Types of Language Performance-Based Assessment

Performance-based assessment should not be limited to a single activity type. In fact, using performance-based tasks gives teachers the freedom to probe with language that formal measures often lack. Whatever activity type is used, never assess more than three items at a time. For instance, a role-play might be designed to see if students can respond to "what" and "where" questions; ask for or respond to clarification; and read addresses or telephone numbers. Any more detail would be difficult for students at Level 1 to integrate, and even more difficult for teachers to rate.

Activities should be as authentic and integrated as possible. If reading or writing would be a natural occurrence within a given context that is mainly geared to oral communication, then it should be part of the assessment. Whether oral or literacy activities are being devised, the key to successful performance-based assessment is the creation of activities that do not rely on language more difficult than the level students can handle.

The activity types listed below are all designed for teacher-student, student-student, triad, or group settings. They concentrate more on oral communication and/or reading than on writing. (The portfolio activities will concentrate on writing.) Activities that pair students or use group interaction are the most numerous. They are often more natural than teacher-student interaction, save classroom time, and give the teacher the ability to listen and watch more closely while acting as rater for one or

more students. Oral activity types include:

- role play
- student-student description, using picture or written prompts
- oral reporting to whole class
- telling a picture story, using a sequence of three or more pictures
- interviews, using written prompts
- completing the dialog/conversation, using written prompts
- debates, either one-on-one, or small group, with turn-taking
- brainstorming
- passing the message on among 3-6 students
- giving instructions from picture, diagram, or written prompts
- completing incomplete stories
- games

Features of Portfolio Assessment

Portfolios are files that contain a variety of information assessing student performance relative to instructional objectives. They are a practical way of assessing student work throughout the entire course. Portfolios can include samples of student work, such as stories, completed forms, exercise sheets, pictures drawn and captioned by students, or other written work; tapes of oral work, such as role play or presentations; teacher descriptions of student accomplishments, such as performance on oral tasks; formal test data; and checklists and rating sheets such as those at the end of this section. Like performance-based assessment, portfolios encourage teachers to use a variety of ways to evaluate learning and to do so over time. These multiple indicators of student performance are a better cross-check for student progress than one type of measure alone.

While it is each student's responsibility to put his/her "best work" in the portfolio file, it is the teacher's responsibility to choose the categories of work that should be placed in the file, (e.g., a written story about people; a description of surroundings; a tape of an oral account of a trip). Student work should be collected with a purpose, and each item a student places in the file should reflect progress toward a particular learning goal. In addition, teachers need to maintain checklists or summary sheets of tasks and performances in the student's portfolio, to help them look systematically across students, to make instructional decisions, and to report consistently and reliably. The checklists contained in this volume are examples. Finally, a Portfolio Contents Form will ensure that the same kinds of data are collected for each student, so the results can be used to assess progress for each student and for the class as a whole.

Portfolios may be particularly appropriate for use with highly mobile migrant students in addition to LEP students for the following reasons:

1. For students moving from one teacher or school to another, portfolios can pass along critical information on their strengths and needs so the new teacher does not duplicate assessments that have already been conducted.

2. For students being considered for placement at different levels within an ESL or bilingual education program, portfolio results can determine their ability to function at various levels.

3. For students being considered for transition from ESL or bilingual education program to a mainstream, English-only program, portfolio results can measure performance relative to classmates in the mainstream.

4. For students being considered for pre-referral to special education programs, portfolio results can be used to determine whether performance is related to language proficiency, including both native language and English literacy skills. .

Literacy Development Checklist

Student: _____ Teacher: _____

School: _____ Academic Yr.: _____

Mark:

X =Effective I = Sometimes Effective – = Needs Work

READING PROCESSES	Quarter			
	1	2	3	4
I. READING SKILLS				
Comprehends oral stories				
Reading Vocabulary				
Fluent decoding				
Literal comprehension in reading				
Inferential comprehension				
II. INTEREST				
Initiates own reading				
Shows pleasure in reading				
Selects books independently				
Samples a variety of materials				
III. APPLICATIONS				
Participates in language experience story development				
Participates in reading discussion groups				
Writes appropriate dialogue journal entries				
Chooses books of appropriate difficulty				
Uses reading in written communication				

IV. READING STRATEGIES	Quarter 1	2	3	4
Monitors attention				
Notices miscues that interfere with meaning				
Infers meaning based on:				
*Word clues				
*Sentence structure				
*Story structure				
*Prior experience				
Summarizes main ideas or key events				
Links details to main ideas				
Remembers sequence of events				
Predicts conclusions				
Requests help if needed				

Note: Adapted from materials developed by the National Council of Teachers of English and by The Writing Lab of the University of New Hampshire.

Figure 1. Literacy Developoment Checklist

Sample of Student Self-Assessment of Reading Ability

In reading a passage, I can:

READING TASK	Criteria		
	All the Time	Sometimes	Almost never
1. Understand the main ideas			
2. Understand the details			
3. Understand the vocabulary			
4. Read quickly and still understand most of it			

Figure 2. Self-Assessment of Reading Ability

Math Development Checklist

Comments: _____

	Does not Apply	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Not Noticed Yet
1. Counts to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
2. Has 1: 1 correspondence to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
3. Verbalizes addition				
4. Verbalizes subtraction				
5. Symbolizes addition to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
6. Symbolizes subtraction to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
7. Verbalizes multiplication				

Figure 3. Math Development Checklist

Sample of Rubric For Rating Writing Samples

Rating	Criteria
5	• Vocabulary is precise, varied, and vivid • Organization is appropriate to writing assignment and contains clear introduction, development of ideas, and conclusion • Transition from one idea to another is smooth and provides the reader with clear understanding that the topic is changing • Meaning is conveyed effectively • A few mechanical errors may be present but do not disrupt communication • Shows a clear understanding of writing and topic development
4	• Vocabulary is adequate for grade levels • Events are organized logically, but some part of the sample may not be fully developed • Some transition of ideas is evident • Meaning is conveyed but breaks down at times • Shows a good understanding of writing and topic development
3	• Vocabulary is simple • Organization may be extremely simple or there may be evidence of disorganization • There are a few transitional markers or repetitive transitional markers • Meaning is frequently clear • Mechanical errors affect communication • Shows some understanding of writing and topic development
2	• Vocabulary is limited and repetitious • Sample is composed of only a few disjointed sentences • No transitional markers • Meaning is unclear • Mechanical errors cause serious disruption in communication • Shows little evidence of discourse understanding
1	• Responds with a few isolated words • No complete sentences are written • No evidence of concepts of writing
0	• No response

Source: S.S. Moya, Evaluation Assistance Center (EAC)-East, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., 1990.

Figure 4. Sample Holistic Criteria

Sample Portfolio Analysis Form

DATE: 5/1/92
STUDENT: Marisel A.
TEACHER: Jones
GRADE: 4
EDUCATIONAL GOAL: Student demonstrates ability on variety of writing tasks

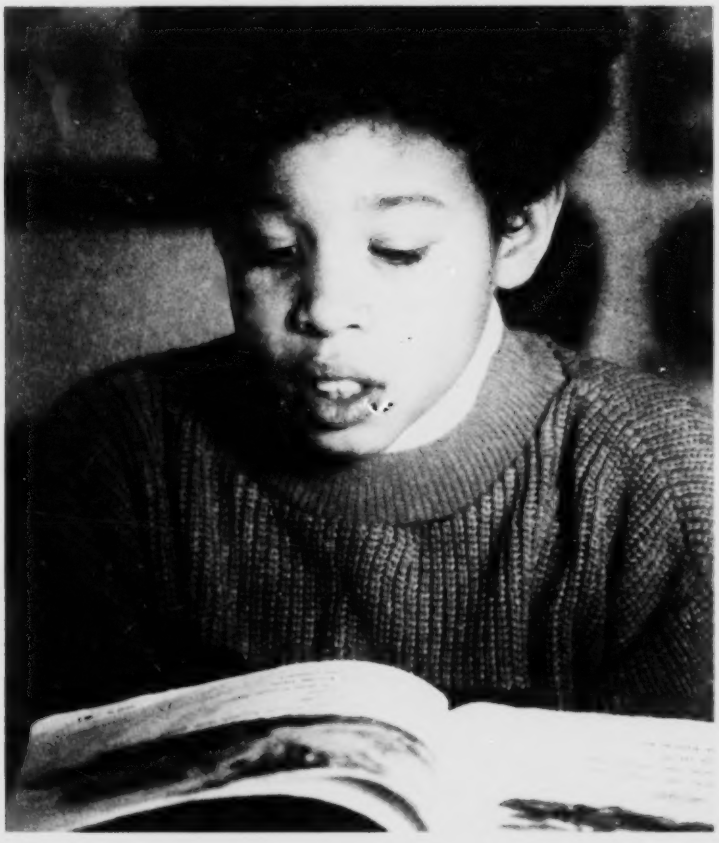
PERFORMANCE TASK	CONTENTS ILLUSTRATING STUDENT PROGRESS	DATE
• Demonstrates interest and ability in variety of writing	Literacy Development Checklist	3/20/92
• Writes a short story	Writing Sample: Dog Story	4/22/92
• Writes to communicate with others	Letter Dialog Journal	4/10/92 3/31/92
• Expresses writing preferences	Self-Assessment of Writing	4/24/92
• Shares writing with others	Anecdotal record	4/06/92
Summary Comments:		

Figure 5. Sample Portfolio Analysis Form

Using Portfolio Results

Portfolio results can be used in a variety of ways. The Sample Portfolio Analysis Form shown in Figure 5 is an essential component in many of these uses:

- **diagnosis and placement**—Student strengths and needs are examined with regard to major curriculum objectives.
- **monitoring student progress**—Growth in learning over the course of the semester or school year can be monitored.
- **feedback on the effectiveness of instruction**—If individual students are not progressing, the instructional approach should be re-evaluated and appropriate adaptations made to meet each student's needs. One possible conclusion is that a student needs instructional support beyond the services provided by the classroom(s) in which the portfolio has been maintained.
- **communication with other teachers**—This incudes other members of the portfolio team and those at other schools to which students may transfer.
- **student feedback**—Portfolios enable students to comment and reflect on their progress and to plan what they would do to improve.



A. Arlington County Public Schools, Virginia Elementary ESOL HILT Program

Reading

- Teacher observation log
- Examples of what student can read
- Books/materials read
- Audiotape of student reading
- Test results, formal and informal
- Conferencing forms
- Examples of skills mastered

Writing

- First piece of writing each year
- Learning log, dialog journal
- January and May writing samples
- Drafts and final products from different genres (personal narratives, exposition, letters, poems, essays, reports)
- Graphics (illustrations, diagrams)

B. Stratham Memorial Elementary School, New Hampshire, Reading Writing Portfolio

Reading

- Favorite books/authors list
- Genre graph, indicating type of literature preferred
- Journal entries
- List of completed books

Writing

- Writing sample and cover sheet
- List of completed pieces

Evaluation

- Goals and/or self-evaluation
- Annual narrative summary by student

C. Orange County Public Schools, Florida, Literacy Portfolio Components

Core Elements

- Reading development checklist
- Three writing samples
- List of books read independently

Optional Elements

- Student self-assessment
- Reading journals
- Audiotapes of student reading
- "Things I Can Do" List
- Test results, formal and informal
- Reading comprehension tests
- Running records (miscue analysis) and anecdotal records

D. Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia, ESL Program

Core Elements

- Two writing samples
- Two oral production samples
- Informal reading assessment
- List of books to read
- Results of Degrees of Reading Power (DRP) test, Grades 7-12

Optional Elements

- Dialogue journal excerpts
- Teacher observations
- Reading/writing checklists
- Student self-assessment
- Audio/videotapes
- Student-selected work

Figure 6. Reading/Writing Portfolios: Sample Contents

6. Grading

Report card grades are an important part of the communication among teachers, students, and parents (Stiggins, 1988). Grades have two basic purposes in the classroom: to reflect student accomplishments and to motivate students. While grades may indicate the level or rank order of student performance, there are questions about their success in serving as an incentive for students to exert greater effort. Teachers often comment that not all students see grades as motivating (Stiggins, Frisbie, and Griswald 1989). Grades are extrinsic motivation not derived from self-determined criteria, as in learning out of interest and self-created goals. Moreover, as Kohn (1994) notes, people who are promised extrinsic rewards for an activity "tend to lose interest in whatever they had to do to obtain the reward" (p. 39). Wiggins (1993) indicates that grades can be a disincentive to some students because, particularly when teachers grade on a curve, somebody always loses, and a portion of the class is made to feel inept.

The problems with assigning grades are even more evident with group grades. Group grades are typically an attempt to grade the final product of student teams that worked on a project, essay, or presentation. Group grades can undermine motivation because they do not reward individual work or hold individual students accountable (Kagan, 1995). The poor performance of a single person can lower the group grade, thereby undermining the motivation of high-achieving students and rewarding low performers who are fortunate to have a high achiever on the team. In this sense, the group's grade is due to forces outside the control of the high-achieving student. Students need to know that they and other students are individually accountable for their work.

Surveys of grading practices indicate that teachers consider factors other than achievement or growth in determining grades, such as perceived level of effort, attitude, ability, behavior, and attendance (Alverman and Phelps, 1994). Two problems are evident in considering factors other than growth or achievement in assigning grades. First, the intermingling of achievement with other factors can have an unintended negative effect because students receive a mixed message on their accomplishments: "You tried hard but didn't succeed anyway." The second problem is in the extreme variation in grading from teacher to teacher. Teachers vary not only in the factors they use in grading, but also in the criteria they use to assign grades on classroom tests. Among the methods teachers use in grading classroom tests are the following (EAC-West, 1992):

- percentages (90-100%= A, 80-90%= B, and so on)
- mastery (80% = mastery, 60-79% = partial mastery, <60% = nonmastery)
- grading on a curve (top 7% = A, next 24% = B, middle 38% = c, next 24% = D, and lowest 7% = F)
- gap grading (assigning grades to suit large gaps in a score distribution, e.g., 94-100% = A, 90-93% no scores, 83-89% = B, 79-82% no scores, 68-78% = C, etc.)

In determining final grades from classroom tests, some teachers average numerical scores on these tests, while other teachers average the grades received on the tests. The latter approach reduces the impact on final grades from a single high or low test score. For example, an extremely low numerical score such as 3 out of 100 will have a far greater impact on the mean of all the tests than a single F will have on the mean of the corresponding grades. Teachers can also assign different weights to tests, papers, presentations, and classroom participation in determining final grades. In summary, not only does each teacher decide what will be evaluated and how much each activity will count, but teachers also determine how the final grade will be calculated. Because of this variation in grading practices and in criteria used to assign grades on classroom tests, we could expect a great deal of variation from teacher to teacher in the final grades stu-

dents receive, even given a common set of papers or products to rate.

One final difficulty in grading practices stems more from the tests on which grades are based than from the grades themselves. In the past, classroom tests have tended to assess lower-level skills even when teachers claim to value and teach complex thinking (Stiggins, Frisbie, and Griswald, 1989). Inevitably, the resulting grades assigned will be based on lower-level skills instead of on the real objectives and content of classroom instruction.

Despite the problems we have identified with grading practices, our experience leads us to believe that grades can be useful if they are based on authentic assessments and are assigned following certain guidelines. Grades are requested regularly by parents as a guide to their child's performance and are useful as an overall indicator of student achievement. When combined with illustrative samples of student work and with informative scoring rubrics, grades can provide parents and other teachers with a comprehensive picture of student growth and achievement. Part of the usefulness of grades depends, however, on establishing relatively uniform criteria for grades in a school or among classrooms.

The introduction of authentic assessment (including portfolios) to accompany more innovative forms of instruction expands considerably the alternatives that can be used to establish classroom grades. Teachers using authentic assessments evaluate students on samples of classroom performance that may include reports, projects, and/or group work. In authentic assessment, student performance is often rated using scoring rubrics that define the knowledge students possess, how they think, and how they apply their knowledge.

Because the rubrics are specific (or at least should be) their use tends to reduce teacher-to-teacher variations in grading, especially if the teachers base their ratings on a common set of anchor papers. With the use of portfolios, teachers can provide parents with specific examples of student work to illustrate the ratings they give to students on the scoring rubrics. Furthermore, with authentic assessment, teachers often establish standards of performance that reflect what students should know or be able to do at different levels of performance that may also reflect different levels of mastery. Finally, teachers using authentic assessment share the criteria for scoring student work openly and invite discussions of the criteria with students and parents.

With these new opportunities comes a challenge: to define the procedures by which scoring rubrics and rating scales are converted to classroom grades. In rating individual pieces of student work, one option is to directly convert rubrics on a 1-4 scale to corresponding letter grades. This could work acceptably provided that the points on the rubric represent what you consider to be "A-level" performance, "B-level" performance, and so on. While this may be effective in some cases, it is not always a good practice because definitions of what students know and can do at the different levels on the rubric do not always correspond to what is considered to be A or B performance. Further, it may be unwise to confuse the informed feedback provided by a scoring rubric with the external reward of a grade (Kohn, 1994). Thus, a second option is to establish independent standards of performance corresponding to letter grades. That is, identify in advance exactly what students receiving an A, B, etc. are expected to know and do in meeting the course objectives. Then obtain a student grade by comparing the student's actual performance with the established standard. The standard corresponding to grades can reflect overall student performance across activities or projects, thereby avoiding the difficulty of having to create standards for grades on each student product. The score on a rubric for each activity provides effective informed feedback to students on their work, and the standard provides them with direction on what they need to accomplish.

Our recommendations in grading and communicating student performance with authentic assessment are as follows:

- Assign scores to individual student achievement or growth based on a scoring rubric or an agreed-on standard to reflect mastery of classroom objectives.

- Assign weights to different aspects of student performance as reflected in class assignments (e.g., projects, reports, and class participation).
- Multiply each rating by the weight and sum the ratings of scores on individual papers or performances to obtain an overall numeric score.
- Reach agreement with other teachers and with students on the interpretation of the summed score with respect to grades.
- Do not assign grades for effort and especially do not combine effort and achievement in a single grade.
- If you assign grades for group work, assign separate grades for the group product and for individual contributions.

In using anecdotal records to support grades:

- Use the language of the rubric to help you write anecdotal comments, describing specifically what each student should know and be able to do, and using examples.
- Link your comments to instructional goals, and (where appropriate) distinguish between language proficiency and content-area knowledge and skills.
- In expressing concerns, focus on (1) what the student knows and can do, (2) your plan or strategies for helping the student improve, and (3) what the parent can do to help.

Discuss growth over time in addition to current performance.

- Use anecdotal comments to provide feedback on group work and group participation.
- Use enclosures: a one-page class or course overview, samples of the student's work, the student's self-evaluation, a letter from you or from the student to parents, etc.

We believe that teachers should explore alternative forms of assessment and grading that are adapted to their instructional methods and to the scoring rubrics they use in evaluating student performance. In one such approach (Brodhagen, 1994), a grade-level middle school teacher attempted to accomplish three goals: to establish a grading system that was consistent with an integrative (thematic) curriculum, to involve students in the design of classroom assessment and grading, and to avoid the stigma attached to grades of D and F by giving students opportunities to improve their work. She and a cooperating teacher agreed to assign only grades of A, B, C, or I (Incomplete), and graded only if the student turned in 80% of required work because anything less would be insufficient to grade. Students were involved in the assessment of their own learning and also in the design of this system. Students selected five or six pieces from a portfolio to represent their "best work," wrote a self-evaluation of the quarter's work, and wrote goals for the next quarter. The teacher used all of this information in a quarterly parent-teacher-student conference with considerable success and a high degree of student participation.

Standardized Testing and LEP Students

Predominance of Standardized Testing as a Measure of Student Achievement

In recent years, there has been increasing emphasis on setting high standards for all students and holding schools accountable for reaching those standards. When educators take into account what second language research tells them about how long it takes to acquire a language, they conclude that holding LEP students to these high standards will require more resources than they now possess. Most states have adopted "waivers" for LEP students that exempt the students from taking the tests for a period of one to three years, but most LEP students will still have difficulty performing well on standardized tests that are both linguistically and culturally biased.

This issue is entirely too complex to discuss in depth here, but there are things that we—as teachers—can do to improve what seems like a no-win situation.

Some suggestions would include:

- Helping LEP students to learn the strategies and skills required for taking a standardized test.
- Advocating for intensive ESL/bilingual programs in your local district.
- Finding out about special "testing modifications" (e.g., extended time, having test read aloud in English, use of bilingual dictionary) that your state allows and use these modifications when you test your students on a regular basis in the regular classroom.
- Ensuring that if an LEP student is able to take a portion of a standardized test (e.g., math) that he or she participates as soon as possible.
- Educating yourself about second language acquisition and recommended strategies for LEP students so that you'll be a more informed advocate for sensible policies.

You are not alone in feeling that simply setting higher standards does not ensure that LEP students will be capable of achieving them. However, if we consider this movement as a process that will end in improving educational programs for all students, then we can work at not only improving our own teaching, but also advocating at every level for programs that we know will help LEP students achieve in ways we never thought possible.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

7

Fostering Home-School Partnerships

We know that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement. Moreover, it seems that the most useful variety of parent involvement is contact between parents and their children in the home, which encourages and aids school achievement. For example, students who read to their parents and who talk with their parents about reading (using either their home language and/or English) have markedly higher reading gains than students who do not have this opportunity. Research shows that small-group instruction during the school day by highly competent specialists **does not produce** reading gains comparable to those that result from parental involvement programs.

For the growing numbers of limited- or non-English-proficient parents, parent involvement of any kind in the school process is a new cultural concept. The overwhelming majority of language minority parents believe that the role of the family is to nurture their children, while the role of the school is to educate them. To involve language minority parents in their children's education, we must acculturate them to the meaning of parent involvement in their new social environment.

While most language minority parents do not have the English language proficiency to engage in many of the school's typical parent activities, they may be very successful at parent-school collaboration at home. These parents can learn to reinforce educational concepts in the native language and/or English. Whenever possible, bilingual community liaisons should help bridge language and cultural differences between home and school.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

1. Categories of Involvement

Epstein (1995) has been one of the principal researchers of parental involvement and its effect on student achievement. She identified six categories of parent involvement in the education of children:

1. Providing for children's basic needs

By seeing that children are fed, clothed, have enough sleep, and enjoy a secure, loving environment, parents contribute to the well-being a child needs to focus attention on learning both at home and at school. One school-related example is ensuring that children have necessary school supplies and a place to study at home.

2. Communicating with school staff

All schools seek to communicate with parents in one form or another during the school year. Parents' understanding of such communication depends in part on their literacy level and proficiency in the language (usually English) used to send communications home. When schools can provide written communications the parents can understand, and can provide a person who speaks the parents' native language(s), cooperation between schools and language minority parents improves greatly.

3. Volunteering or providing assistance at their child's school

This kind of involvement was traditionally expected, particularly of mothers. However, in Epstein's study, such involvement rarely includes more than a few parents in any school. More than 70% of the parents surveyed had never assisted school staff. As more and more parents work outside the home during school hours, this traditional form of parent involvement has diminished.

4. Supporting and participating in learning activities with their children at home

Epstein looked, in particular, at parental activity that related directly to the children's work in class. She discovered the following:

- More than 85 percent of parents spend at least 15 minutes helping their child at home when asked to do so by the teacher; most said they would spend more time if they were told what to do and how to help.
- Elementary students whose teachers emphasize parent involvement gain more in reading and math achievement than students in classrooms where the teachers do not emphasize similar involvement.

5. Participating in governance and advocacy activities

"Governance" and "advocacy" refer to the avenues by which parents and the community can influence decision making in a school system. Epstein distinguishes the two in the following way: governance activities occur under the auspices of the school system, (e.g., school-appointed advisory committees). Advocacy activities are organized and conducted independent of the school system: one example would be a citizen's group formed to lobby the school board on changes in the curriculum. Each type of participation requires a certain level of understanding of the school's programs and confidence on the part of the parents. Each also requires a willingness and commitment on the part of educators to include families in the decision-making process in meaningful ways.

6. Collaborating with the community

Parents encourage partnerships with community resources and services.

2. Stages of Adjustment for Newcomers

Most of our language minority families are still adjusting to the mainstream culture and language of the United States. The lives of these families changed radically when they moved to this country. Relationships with kin and community were disrupted, as were culturally valued ways of connecting families to community life.

It helps to recognize that different stages of adjustment may elicit different responses from parents with respect to their willingness and/or availability to be actively involved in their children's education. For example, all newcomers to the school system need basic information about school requirements, routines, schedules, and the like. For language minority newcomers, such information may need to be given in the home language and in a setting where there can be personal, face-to-face exchange and clarification. As families become more settled in the community and feel more familiar with how the school system operates, they may be more willing to participate in governance and advocacy activities.

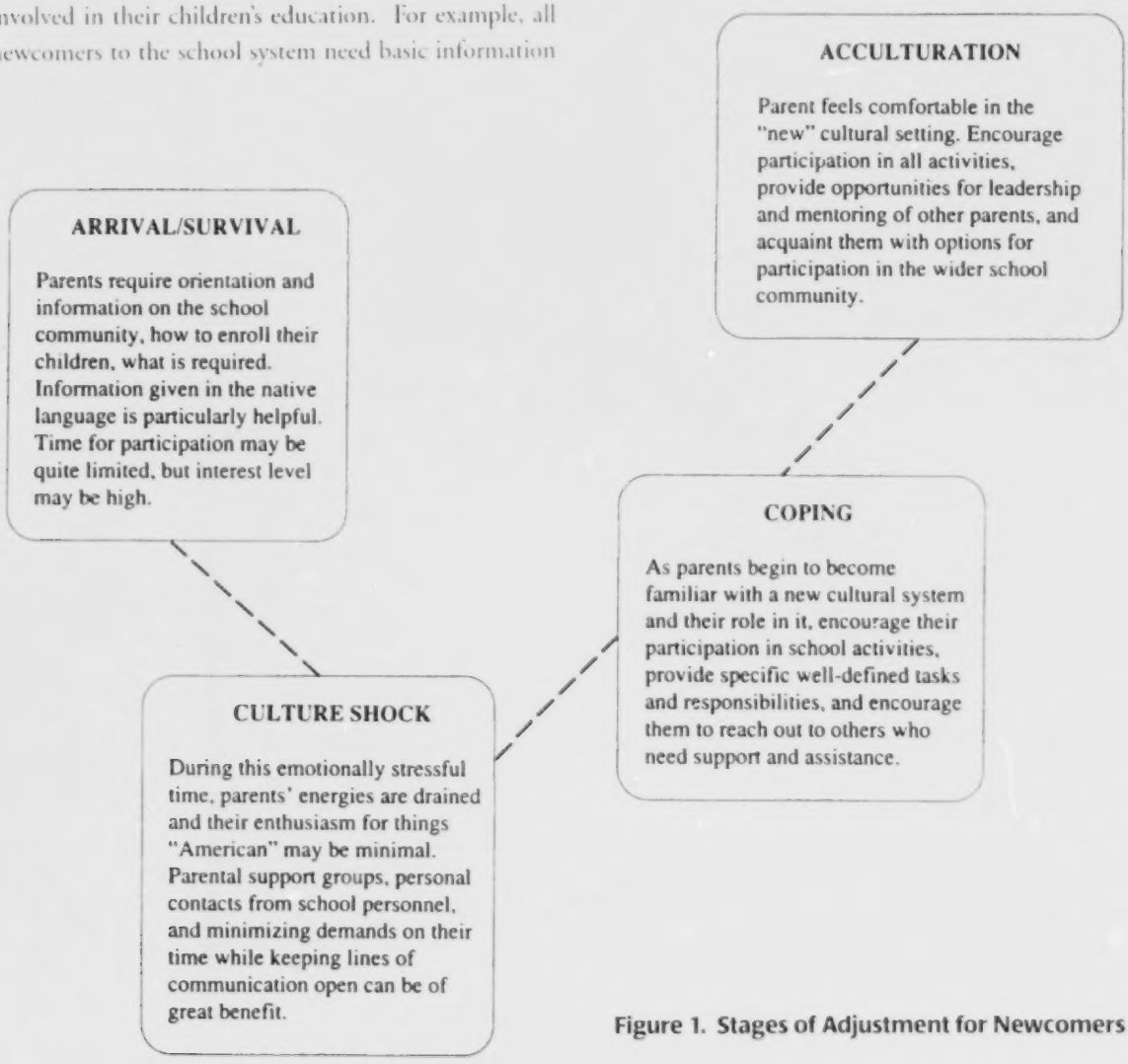

ACCULTURATION
Parent feels comfortable in the "new" cultural setting. Encourage participation in all activities, provide opportunities for leadership and mentoring of other parents, and acquaint them with options for participation in the wider school community.
ARRIVAL/SURVIVAL
Parents require orientation and information on the school community, how to enroll their children, what is required. Information given in the native language is particularly helpful. Time for participation may be quite limited, but interest level may be high.
COPING
As parents begin to become familiar with a new cultural system and their role in it, encourage their participation in school activities, provide specific well-defined tasks and responsibilities, and encourage them to reach out to others who need support and assistance.
CULTURE SHOCK
During this emotionally stressful time, parents' energies are drained and their enthusiasm for things "American" may be minimal. Parental support groups, personal contacts from school personnel, and minimizing demands on their time while keeping lines of communication open can be of great benefit.

Figure 1. Stages of Adjustment for Newcomers

3. Implementing a Participation Model

How can a local school system encourage the participation of parents who are newly arrived and/or whose English proficiency is limited? Experience shows that these parents do care about their children's education and want to be involved in their local schools. When a school system provides caring, sensitive, and enlightened avenues for these parents, they become active partners in education.

Factors That Affect Parental Involvement

In designing appropriate support systems for parents in general, the experiences and resources of language minority parents should be acknowledged and respected. Although every family entering the school system is unique, some generalizations can be helpful. Differences in levels of involvement may be influenced by the following factors:

1. Length of residence in the United States

Newcomers to this country will most likely need considerable orientation and support in order to understand what their child's school expects in the way of participation and involvement. Native language communication, cultural orientation sessions, and the support of others who have been newcomers can be extremely helpful during what may be a stressful adjustment period.

2. English language proficiency

Parents whose English proficiency is limited may find it difficult or intimidating to communicate with school staff or to help in school activities without bilingual support. These parents can, of course, participate successfully and can help their children at home, so take care to see that they receive information and that their efforts are welcomed and encouraged.

Migrant farm workers often have a low level of literacy in their native language (usually Spanish) and a limited amount of schooling in their native country. Some of the adults from rural areas of Mexico and Central America speak an indigenous language that may limit their ability to communicate orally in Spanish. These factors make including migrant parents even more of a challenge because sending written materials home in Spanish (or in the indigenous language) is often not helpful.

3. Availability of support groups and bilingual staff

Native language parent groups and bilingual school personnel can make a crucial difference in fostering involvement among parents. Bilingual community liaisons can also translate the information provided to parents. These services ensure that information is understood, and demonstrate to parents that the school wants to involve them actively in the life of the school and in their children's academic development.

4. Prior experiences

Language minority parents differ widely in the extent to which they are familiar and comfortable with the concept of parental involvement in schools. Some newcomers may have been actively involved in their children's education in their native country, while others may come from cultures where the parent's role in education is understood in very different terms. Others, as indicated in Epstein's study, may need only some specific suggestions on how to "help" in order to participate more actively in education at home and at school.

5. Economic need

Parents who are barely surviving economically find that their children's school attendance is a hardship. Children could improve the family's income by working in the fields if they did not have to go to school.

4. How Can We Promote Home Language Use?

In school

1. Encourage educators to use a curriculum that reflects the culture, values, interests, experiences, and concerns of language minority children.

2. Help children feel pride in their home language and cultural heritage.

3. Introduce **all** students to the joys of cultural diversity and the desirability of learning more than one language.

4. Promote two-way bilingual programs.

5. Hire and develop culturally experienced and bilingual staff.

6. Raise teacher expectations of students who have a limited grasp of English.

7. Empower parents and communicate with them in their home language.

8. Provide students with interesting reading material in their native language.

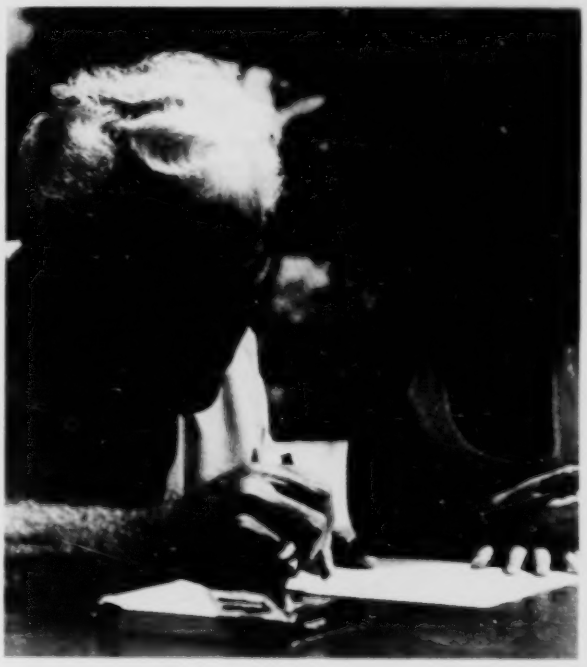
9. Give students the opportunity to write in "journals" using their native language.

10. Ensure that educators promote communication in the family's home language, rather than sending a strong "English only" message to language minority students and their families.

In the home

1. Develop supportive program practices that strengthen family bonds and the parents' role in their child's development and education.

2. Educate parents about the importance of using the home language with their children and that the continuing development of the home language strengthens—rather than impedes—their child's ability to learn English.



5. Family Literacy

Family literacy programs can forge closer ties between homes and schools to increase student achievement. Family literacy is based on the notion that literacy—because it is social and cultural in nature—is best developed within the context of the family. Family literacy situates literacy learning within the context of the daily lives of participating families, acknowledges a broad range of culturally influenced ways of knowing, and provides greater access to schools and comfort in dealing with schools. It is extremely important to encourage parents to interact with their children in the language they feel most comfortable using. Some parents believe that using Spanish with their children will negatively affect their ability to learn English, but informing them that increased literacy in Spanish will also enhance a child's literacy in English usually puts their minds at ease.

There are four major areas of home literacy:

1. Literacy Modeling

Encouraging parents to model literacy uses for their children.

2. Literacy Opportunities

Increasing the range of literacy materials available in the home. (See end of chapter for a list of companies that publish bilingual books and books in Spanish)

3. Literacy Interactions

Demonstrating ways to engage in literacy activities with children.

4. Home-School Relationships

Providing opportunities for teacher-parent discussions and classroom observation.

Here are some ideas for sessions to help parents enrich their home literacy environment:

Creating Home Literacy Centers

Create and use a literacy activity center in a box: include pencils, crayons, paper, scissors, paste, magazines, pictures, etc.

Book Sharing

The most effective ways to share books with children. How to talk about books and share books according to the parents' literacy level.

Teaching the ABC's

Simple ways to teach letters and sounds. Emphasize language games, songs, and language experience activities.

Community Literacy

Parents can share their own literacy with children while at the market and during other daily activities.

Book Fairs

Parents buy (with coupons) English or Spanish-language books for their children.

Parents and Homework

Ways parents can monitor and help with children's homework even when they cannot do the homework themselves.

Parent/Child Literacy Behavior Checklist

	Pre			Post		
	N	S	O	N	S	O
1. The family has books in the home.						
2. A parent (or other) reads to the child.						
3. The parents play games with the child.						
4. The child has coloring books.						
5. The parents have taught the child songs and nursery rhymes.						
6. The child cooks with the parents.						
7. The child goes to the store with the parents.						
8. The parents read newspapers or magazines.						
9. The parents tell the child stories or folk tales.						

N Never
S Sometimes
O Often

SMART START

Reading at Home

There are many ways that we, as parents, can help our children get ready to read.

Having things to read around the house encourages our children to read. The language doesn't matter! Magazines, newspapers, coloring books with or without words, and books of all kinds contribute to the reading environment. Garage sales and swap meets are great places to find inexpensive books.

We can "read" picture books with our children and make up stories as they look at the pictures. Together we can invent anything that may be related to the pictures. The same book can be "read" over and over. Young children do not tire of the familiar and they like repetition. We are teaching more than we realize when we enjoy books with our children.

Good things happen when we read and talk to our children:

- Children develop their language, including listening and speaking.
- When we read books from left to right we are reinforcing the direction of print (move your finger from left to right when you read to your children).
- As we read, our children learn that stories are sequential. They have order: a beginning, a middle, and an end.
- We are contributing to learning by simply relating our experiences (stories) in our own language.
- When we read together we communicate in a gentle and loving manner our expectation that our child will learn to read.
- Once a child begins to read, the family can listen enthusiastically and discuss the reading in their own language.

—by Frank Ludovina

Begin talking to your child from infancy. Make sounds. Call attention to sounds and connect them with objects and events. Talk to the child and explain activities as you perform them. Listen and encourage conversation with you. Answer questions patiently and as promptly as possible. Play listening games with your child. A good bedtime game is to listen quietly and identify as many sounds as possible—heartbeats, breathing, traffic. Listening attentively is essential in learning.

—from *"52 Ways to Help Your Child Learn"*
California Teachers Association

La lectura en el hogar

¿Cómo podemos nosotros los padres estimular el interés de nuestros niños en la lectura?

El solo hecho de tener libros en casa estimula a los niños a leer. ¡No importa en que idioma estén escritos estos materiales! Las resvistas, los periódicos, los libros de colorear y toda clase de libros contribuyen a un ambiente de lectura. Usted puede comprar libros usados y baratos en algunos mercados (swap meets) o en ventas de garage.

Podemos "leer" con nuestros niños libros ilustrados. Mientras miramos juntos estos libros podemos contar o inventar historias sobre los dibujos. El mismo libro puede ser "leído" muchas veces ya que a los niños pequeños les gusta lo familiar y no se cansan de la repetición.

Nosotros enseñamos más de lo que creemos cuando gozamos juntos de la lectura.

Por ejemplo:

- Por medio de la lectura nuestros niños desarrollan el lenguaje, la habilidad para escuchar y para hablar.
- Al leer de izquierda a derecha estamos reforzando la manera que se debe leer - podemos apuntar con el dedo para mostrar la dirección de la lectura.

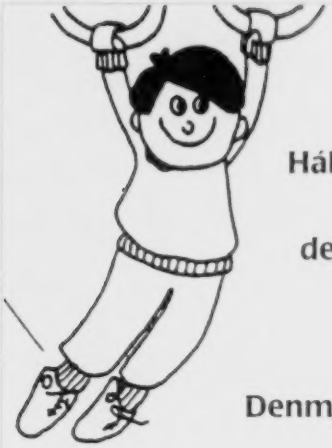
- Cuando les leemos a nuestros niños ellos están aprendiendo que las historias son hechos sucesivos y con un orden: el principio, el medio, y el final.
- Los niños observarán que nosotros aprendemos y gozamos al leer.
- A través de la repetición el niño aprende ideas y el lenguaje para expresarlos.
- Cuando relatamos historias de la famila en nuestro idioma los niños aprenden el lenguaje, la cultura y la sucesión de una historia.
- Al compartir la lectura comunicamos a nuestros niños de una manera suave y cariñosa nuestras expectatives de que ellos aprendan a leer.
- Cuando el niño empieza a leer, la famila podrá mostrarle su interés al escucharlo. Al platicar sobre el tema se desarrollarán las ideas y el vocabulario de los niños.

—Frank Ludovina

-Ideas de *"52 maneras de ayudar a aprender a su hijo"* por la asociacion de maestras de California

Convérsele a su niño aunque sea pequeñito. Enséñele a asociar ruidos con los objetos que lo producen. Mientras hace algo explíquele a su niño lo que está haciendo. Escúchelo y anímelo a conversar con Ud. Conteste a sus preguntas con paciencia y tan pronto como pueda. Juegue juegos que requieren escuchar. Por ejemplo cuando lo acueste a dormir, jueguen a escuchar e identificar ruidos—el latido del corazón, la respiración, o el tráfico. Cuando eschuchamos atentamente es cuando aprendemos mejor.

—from *"52 Ways to Help Your Child Learn"* California Teachers Association



Cuando Soy Pequeño

Háblenme cuando soy pequeño para que aprenda
nuevas ideas y para que
descubra cómo es nuestra lengua. Escúchenme
cuando trato de hablar
aunque sea difícil entenderme.

Denme juguetes con los que pueda aprender sobre
colores, formas, tamaños
y otras cosas importantes.

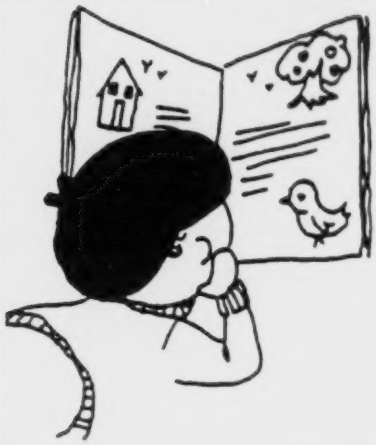
Déjenme correr y jugar con frecuencia
para que todos mis músculos
se desarrollen.

Léanme cuentos para que aprenda nuevas ideas y
palabras, y para que descubra
cómo los libros nos hablan.

Después, déjenme leer los libros e inventar
historias sobre los dibujos: Así aprendo
que los libros cuentan historias.

Déjenme aprender cosas sobre los libros
a mi proprio ritmo. No intenten que
aprenda a leer antes de que esté
preparado para ello.

Sobre todo, ¡quiéranme mucho y
ayúdenme a sentirme orgulloso de mí
mismo!



Como Aprendo A Leer

Cuando empiezo a leer por primera vez,
invento la mayoría de las palabras,
porque ¡no sé para qué son esos
símbolos negros tan extraños!

Luego, invento palabras para contar los
cuentos, pero ¡ya empiezo a hablar
como hablan los libros!

En seguida, comienzo a fijarme en los
dibujos para ayudarme a contar el cuento.

Después de que alguien me ha leído un cuento
varias veces, ¡puedo leerlo sin abrir
el libro siquiera y mirar las hojas!

Muy pronto, aprendo a leer libros,
diciendo las palabras que están escritas
en las páginas. ¡Aprendo que los
símbolos negros cuentan la historia
y no los dibujos!

6A. Parental Responsibilities 1997-1998

Language minority parents often need to have school rules and expectations clarified. Here are some examples of areas that parents may need help to understand:

Attendance

1. Parents must enroll in school any child who turns five years old on or before September 30th of any school year.

2. The child must attend school on a regular basis—arriving at school on time and attending every day that school is in session unless the child has a legitimate excuse such as illness.

Safety/Discipline

3. It is important—for each child's safety—for the school to be notified of the reason for a child's absence from school. If a child leaves home and doesn't arrive at school, he or she may be in danger. The school recommends that parents call or drop by the school with the reason for a child's absence. **Spanish-speaking parents may call 662-7656 after 8:30 a.m. and ask to speak with "Daisy."**

4. There are strict guidelines in the United States for disciplining children. **If a child is physically, emotionally, or sexually abused at home, the child may be taken away from the parents by a local child protection agency.**

   The guidelines for disciplining are as follows:
   (a) No child may be hit with a closed fist.
   (b) No child may be struck with an object such as a belt, wooden stick, etc.

5. Parents must keep their child safe by providing adequate supervision at all times. **All children under 10 years old must be supervised by an adult or older sibling.** A child may not be kept home from school in order to babysit.

6. If the school must bring a child home during the school day for any reason, the child must be left with a responsible adult (e.g., parent or babysitter). No child may be left home alone. For this reason, **it is essential that the parents provide the school with a reliable emergency contact number** so that the school can contact someone during the school day in case of an accident or other emergency.

In Case of Illness

7. If the school recommends medical treatment for a child, the parents must do what is required (e.g., visit a doctor and/or obtain a certain medicine). If, for some reason, the parents cannot follow up on the recommended treatment, they should notify the school so that we can be of help.

Emergency Contact Number _____

When does the father leave for work? _____ mother? _____
Is there someone we can leave the child with if the parents are not home?

_____

Parent Signature _____ Date _____

6B. Responsabilidades de los Padres (Spanish Version) 1997-98

Asistencia

1. Los padres deben inscribir a un hijo que cumple cinco años en o antes del día 30 de septiembre del año escolar.

2. El hijo debe asistir a la escuela todos los días—llegando a tiempo y asistiendo cada día a menos que haya excusa legítima como enfermedad.

Seguridad/Disciplina

3. Es importante—para la seguridad de cada hijo—que los padres avisen la escuela cuando un hijo se queda en casa. Si un niño sale de su casa y no llega a la escuela puede estar un peligro. La escuela recomienda que los padres llamen o pasen por la escuela para decirles por qué su hijo no está. **Los padres que hablan español pueden llamar 662-7656 después de las 8:30 a.m. y preguntar por "Daisy."**

4. En los Estados Unidos hay reglas estrictas sobre las maneras aceptadas de disciplina. **Si un niño es abusado físicamente, emocionalmente, o sexualmente en casa, el niño será quitado de los padres por una agencia local de protección de niños.**

   Las reglas de disciplina son:
   (a) No se permite pegar a un niño con puño cerrado.
   (b) No se permite pegar a un niño con un objeto como cinturón, palo, etc.

5. Los padres deben dedicarse a la seguridad de su hijo por asegurar que alguien esté cuidándolo todo el tiempo. **Todos los niños de menos de diez años de edad deben estar acompañados por un adulto o hermano mayor.** No se puede pedir que un hijo falte un día de escuela para cuidar a un niño joven.

6. Si la escuela tiene que llevar a un niño a casa durante el día escolar—será necesario dejarlo con un adulto responsable (por ejemplo: padre, madre o pariente). Por eso, **es muy importante que los padres nos den un número de teléfono que la escuela puede usar durante el día escolar en caso de emergencia.**

En Caso de Enfermedad

7. Si la escuela recomienda un tratamiento médico para un niño—los padres deben seguir el aviso, por ejemplo: visitar a un doctor o comprar una medicina. Si—por alguna razón—los padres no pueden cumplir con el tratamiento sugerido, deben avisar la escuela para que podamos auydarles.

Número En Caso De Emergencia _____

¿A qué hora sale el padre para el trabajo? _____ la madre? _____
¿Hay alguien con quién podemos dejar a su hijo si U'ds. no están en casa?

_____

Firma del Padre o de la Madre _____ Fecha _____

7. Publishing Companies for Bilingual and Spanish Language Books

Celebration Press
One Jacob Way
Reading, MA 01867
1-800-792-0550

Chiquilibros
Call 1-800-454-2748 for
information on how to order books

Delta Systems Co., Inc.
1400 Miller Parkway
McHenry, IL 60050
1-800-323-8270

Lectorum
137 West 14th St.
New York, NY 10011
1-800-345-5946

Oxford University Press
2001 Evans Rd.
Carey, NC 27513
1-800-451-7556

Perma-Bound
Vandalia Road
Jacksonville, IL 62650
1-800-637-6581

Pocket Books
1230 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Rigby
P.O. Box 797
Crystal Lake, IL 60039
1-800-822-8661

Sundance Publishing
234 Taylor St.
P.O. Box 1326
Littleton, MA 01460
1-800-343-8204

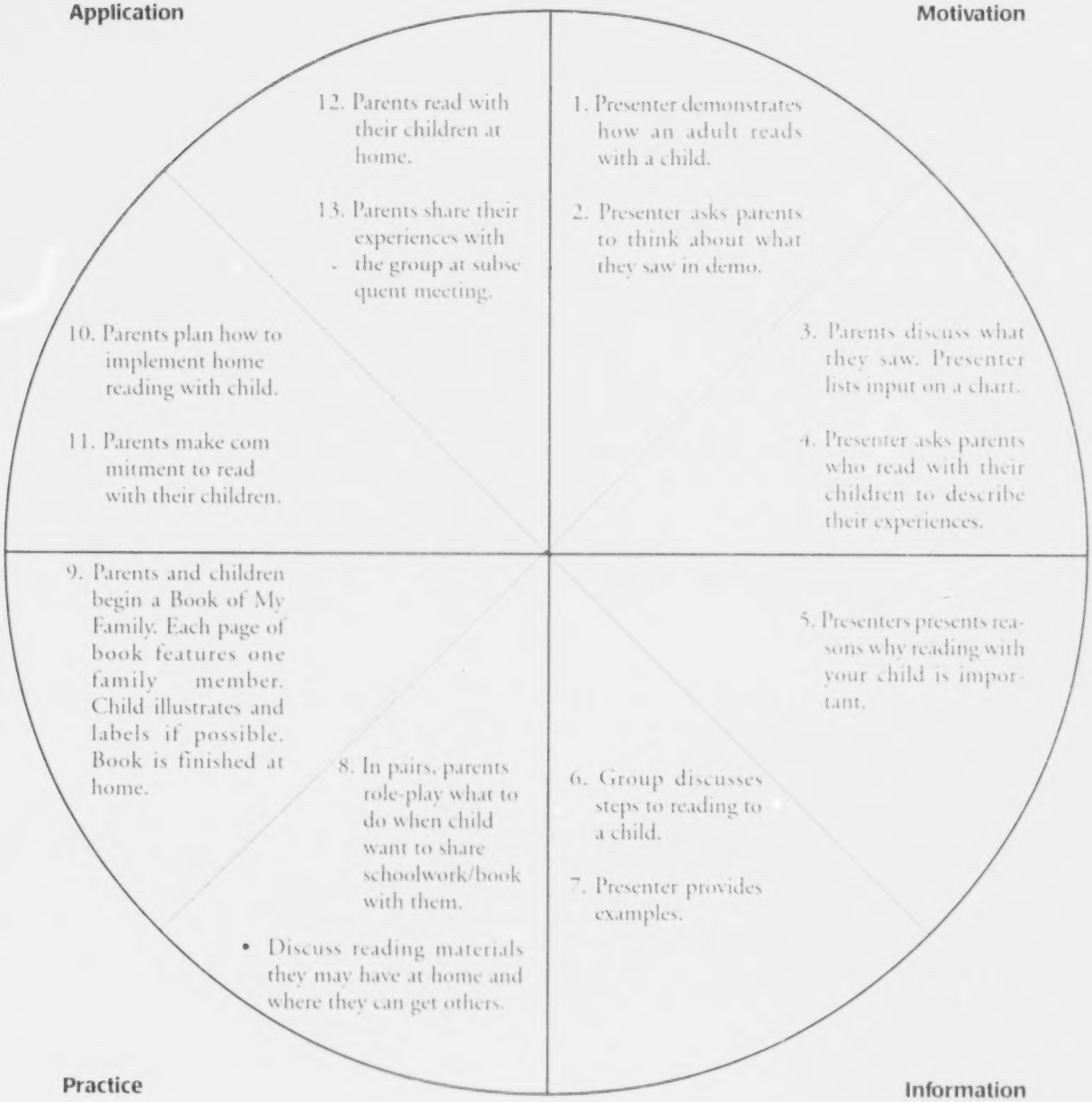
Troll Associates
100 Corporate Drive
Mahwah, NJ 07430
1-800-526-5289

References

Violand-Sanchez, E., et al. (1991). *Fostering Home-School Cooperation: Involving Language Minority Families as Partners in Education* (Program Information Guide #6). Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Mulhern, M. et al. (1994). *Family Literacy for Language Minority Families: Issues for Program Implementation* (Program Information Guide #17). Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Parent Workshop
Reading: A Shared Experience


Application
Motivation
12. Parents read with their children at home.
13. Parents share their experiences with the group at subsequent meeting.
1. Presenter demonstrates how an adult reads with a child.
2. Presenter asks parents to think about what they saw in demo.
10. Parents plan how to implement home reading with child.
11. Parents make commitment to read with their children.
3. Parents discuss what they saw. Presenter lists input on a chart.
4. Presenter asks parents who read with their children to describe their experiences.
9. Parents and children begin a Book of My Family. Each page of book features one family member. Child illustrates and labels if possible. Book is finished at home.
8. In pairs, parents role-play what to do when child want to share schoolwork/book with them.
• Discuss reading materials they may have at home and where they can get others.
5. Presenters presents reasons why reading with your child is important.
6. Group discusses steps to reading to a child.
7. Presenter provides examples.
Practice
Information

Focus:

To help parents understand why it's important to read with their children.
To help parents identify what to read with their children.
To help parents understand how to read with their children.

Etta Johnson, ESOL/HILT
Arlington Public Schools, 1988

8

Technical Assistance and Resources

Resources specific to each section of this book appear at the end of each chapter. Below are more general resources.

1. Organizations/Institutions Serving Linguistic and Cultural Minorities

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037
202-429-9292
202-659-5641 fax

CAL is a nonprofit organization that specializes in language issues. It publishes papers, monographs, and books. (It houses the ERIC Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics.) It provides services such as teacher training and conducts research.

Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT) (For Migrant Education Inquiries)
SUNY at Oneonta
Oneonta, NY 13820
800-451-8058
607-432-7102 fax

ESCORT provides technical assistance on all issues related to migrant students and their families.

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)
1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, DC 20005
202-898-1829

A membership organization for people interested in bilingual education. NABE publishes a journal and other publications, has an annual meeting, and offers on-line services.

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA)
U.S. Department of Education
Room 5082 Switzer Building
600 Independence Avenue, S.W.
Washington, DC 20202
202-205-5463
202-205-8737 fax

The U.S. Government's arm with responsibility for issues and programs related to language minority children. OBEMLA funds **The Bilingual Clearinghouse**, which publishes monographs and runs an on-line service.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
1600 Cameron Street Suite 300
Alexandria, VA 22314
703-836-0774
703-836-7864 fax

A membership organization for ESL and bilingual teachers. TESOL publishes several journals and a newsletter, maintains on-line services, and advocates for ESL students, teachers and parents.

2. Teacher Training

Gailbraith, P. & Anstrom, K. (1995). *Peer Coaching: An Effective Staff Development Model for Educators of Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE).

Grosse, C. (Spring 1991). "The TESOL Methods Course." *TESOL Quarterly, 25*(1), p.29-49.

Hainer, E. Violand, et al. (1990). *Integrating Learning Styles and Skills in the ESL Classroom: An Approach to Lesson Planning.* Washington, DC: NCBE.

Hamayan, E.V., & Perlman, R. (1990). *Helping Language Minority Students After They Exit From Bilingual/ESL Programs: A Handbook for Teachers.*

Kagan, S. (1990). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers.* San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for Teachers.

Leighton, M. S., Hightower, A. M., & Wrigley, P. G. (1995). *Model Strategies in Bilingual Education: Professional Development.*

Milk, R. D. (Fall 1990). "Preparing ESL and Bilingual Teachers for Changing Roles: Immersion for Teachers of LEP Children." *TESOL Quarterly, 24*(3), p.407-426.

Milk, R., et al. (1992) *Re-thinking the Education of Teachers of Language Minority Children: Developing Reflective Teachers for Changing Schools.*

Sakash, K., & Rodriguez-Brown, F.V. (1995). *Teamworks: Mainstream and Bilingual/ESL Teacher Collaboration.* Washington, DC: NCBE.

Torres-Guzman, M.E., & Goodwin, L.A. (1995). *Mentoring Bilingual Teachers.* Washington, DC: NCBE.

3. Legal Framework for Serving Limited English Proficient Students

Improving America's Schools Act: Title I: Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standards. (1994). Washington, DC: NCBE.

Improving America's Schools Act: Title VII Bilingual Education, Language Enhancement, and Language Acquisition Programs. (1994). Washington, DC: NCBE.

Lyons, J. J. (1992). *Legal Responsibilities of Education Agencies Serving National Origin Language Minority Students.* Washington, DC: The Mid-Atlantic Equity Center.

Pocket Digest: Digest of Education Statistics for Limited English Proficient Students. (June 1995). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs.

(The) Provision of an Equal Education Opportunity to Limited English Proficient Students. (December 1992). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights.

4. Selected ESL Software

National Geographic Society—Wonders of Learning (CD-ROMs)
Publisher: National Geographic Society Educational Services
Level: Beginning For: K-2
Special use: Elementary, bilingual

QuickTalk
Publisher: Educational Activities
Level: Beginning For: All except HE
Special use: Literacy

Reading Adventure 1-ESL
Publisher: Queue, Inc.
Level: Intermediate For: K-9
Special use: elementary, bilingual

Reading Adventure 2 - ESL
Publisher: Queue, Inc.
Level: Intermediate For: K-9
Special use: elementary, bilingual

Rosetta Stone, The
Publisher: Fairfield Language Technologies
Level: Beginning For: All

Seasons
Publisher: Discis Knowledge Research
Level: Intermediate For: K-6, 7-12
Special use: elementary, bilingual, science

Tortoise and the Hare
Publisher: Broderbund
Level: Beginning For: All
Special use: bilingual, elementary

Triple PlayPlus!
Publisher: Syracuse Language Systems
Level: Beginning For: All except K-6

Village
Publisher: CALL-IS Macintosh Library
Also ftp from archive.merit.edu or gopher from CELIA
Level: Intermediate For: All except K-6

Where in the World/USA/Europe/America's Past/Time is Carmen Sandiego?
Publisher: Broderbund
Level: Intermediate For: All except K-6
Comes with the World Atlas as a reference for student use.

5. On-line Resources for Education

For Teachers

http://www.classroom.net/
"Classroom Connect" for K-12 educators; resources include newsletters, videos, books, training systems, and conferences

http://www.tesol.edu/
Teachers of English to speakers of other languages

http://www.cal.org/
Center for Applied Linguistics

http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/
National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education

For Students

http://school.discovery.com/
"Discovery Channel" School

http://www.nasa.gov/
NASA Web site with latest news and pictures of space exploration

http://www.sesamestreet.com
"Sesame Street" Web site with stories and lots of practice with letters, numbers, and shapes

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

6. Comprehensive Regional Assistance Center Network

Region I—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont

Education Development Center Inc.
55 Chapel Street
Newton, MA 02158-1060

Director: Wende Allen

800-332-0226
617-965-6325 fax
www.edc.org/NECAC/

Region II—New York

New York Technical Assistance Center (NYTAC)
The Metropolitan Center for Urban Education
New York University
82 Washington Square East, Suite 72
New York, NY 10003

Director: Lamar Miller

800-4NYU-224 or 212-998-5100
212-995-4199 fax
www.nyu.edu/education/metrocenterr/nytac.html

Region III—Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania

Region III Comprehensive Center
The George Washington University
Center for Equity and Excellence in Education
1730 North Lynn Street, Suite 401
Arlington, VA 22209

Director: Charlene Rivera

703-528-3588 or 800-925-3223
703-528-5973 fax
www.ceee.gwu.edu

Region IV—Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia

Region IV Comprehensive Center at
Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Inc.
1700 N. Moore St. Suite 1275
Arlington, VA 22209

Director: Pamela K. Buckley

800-624-9120 or 703-276-0200
703-276-0266 fax
www.ael.org/cac/

Region V—Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
3330 Causeway Boulevard, Suite 430
Metairie, LA 70002

Director: Hai T. Tran

504-838-6861 or 800-644-8671
504-831-5242 fax
www.sedl.org/secac/l

Region VI—Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin

University of Wisconsin
1025 West Johnson Street
Madison, WI 53706

Director: Walter Secada

608-263-4220
608-263-3733 fax
www.wcer.wise.edu/ccvi

Region VII—Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma

University of Oklahoma
555 East Constitution, Suite 128
Norman, OK 73072-7820

Director: Belinda Biscoe
405-325-1729 or 800-228-1766
405-325-1824 fax
tel.occe.ou.edu/comp/comp.html

Region VIII—Texas

STAR Center
Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA)
5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78228-1190

Director: Albert Cortez

210-684-8180 or 888-394-7826
210-684-5389 fax
www.starcenter.org

Region IX—Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah

New Mexico Highlands University
500 Laser Road NE, Suite B
Rio Rancho, NM 87124

Director: Paul Martinez

505-891-6111 or 800-247-4269
505-891-5744 fax
www.cesdp.nmhu.edu

Region X—Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
101 Southwest Main Street, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204

Director: Carlos Sundermann

503-275-9479 or 800-547-6339
503-275-9625 fax
www.nwrac.org

Region XI—Northern California. Includes all counties except Imperial, Inyo, Los Angeles, Mono, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and San Diego

WestEd
730 Harrison Street
San Francisco, CA 94107-1242

Director: Beverly Farr

415-565-3009 or 800-645-3276
415-565-3012 fax
www.wested.org/cc

Region XII—Southern California. Includes Imperial, Inyo, Los Angeles, Mono, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and San Diego counties

Los Angeles County Office of Education
9300 Imperial Highway
Downey, CA 90242-2890

Director: Henry Mothner

310-922-6364
310-940-1798 fax
SCCAC.lacoe.edu/

Region XIII—Alaska

South East Regional Resource Center
210 Ferry Way, Suite 200
Juneau, AK 99801

Director: Linda Layfield

907-586-6806
907-463-3811 fax
www.AKRAC.k12.ak.us

Region XIV—Florida, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands

Educational Testing Service
1979 Lake Side Parkway, Suite 400
Tucker, GA 30084

Director: Trudy Hensley

800-241-3865 or 800-756-9003
770-723-7436 fax
www.ets.org/ccxiv/index.html

Region XV—Hawaii, American Samoa, Federated States of Micronesia, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, Republic of the Marshall Islands, Republic of Palau

Pacific Resources for Education and Learning
Pacific Comprehensive Assistance Center
828 Fort Street Mall, Suite 300
Honolulu, HI 96813-4321

Director: Hilda Heine

808-533-6000
808-533-7599 fax
www.prel.hawaii.edu/Pacific_center

7. Desegregation Assistance Centers (DACs)

Region I —Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Vermont

New England Desegregation Assistance Center for Equity in Education at Brown University
144 Wayland Avenue
Providence, RI 02906

Director: Maria Pacheco

401-274-9548
401-421-7650 fax
www.brown.edu/Research/The_Education_Alliance/DAC/dac.html

Region II—New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands

Equity Assistance Center
New York University
32 Washington Place, Room 72
New York, NY 10003

Director: Joan Dawson

212-998-5110
212-995-4199 fax
www.nyu.edu/education/metrocenter/eac/eac.html

Region III—Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia

Mid-Atlantic Center
The Mid-Atlantic Center
5454 Wisconsin Avenue, Suite 655
Chevy Chase, MD 20815

Director: Sheryl Denbo

301-657-7741
301-657-8782 fax
www.nicom.com/~maec/index.html

Region IV—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee

Southeastern Equity Center
Kendall One Plaza
8603 S. Dixie Highway, Suite 304
Miami, FL 33143

Director: Nancy Peck

305-669-0114
305-669-9809 fax

Region V—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin

Programs for Educational Opportunity
1005 School of Education, University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259

Director: Percy Bates

313-763-9910
313-763-2137 fax
www.umich.edu/~eqtynet

Region VI—Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas

Intercultural Development Research Association
5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78210

Director: Bradley Scott

210-684-8180
210-684-5389 fax
www.idra.org

Region VII—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska

Midwest Desegregation Assistance Center
Kansas State University, Bluemont Hall
Manhattan, KS 66506-5327

Director: Charles Rankin

913-532-6408
913-532-7304 fax
www. mdac.educ.ksu.edu

Region VIII—Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming

Metropolitan State College - Denver
1100 Stout Street, Suite 800
Denver, CO 80204

Director: Gerald Brown

303-556-5179
303-556-8505 fax
www.mscd.edu/~eec_svcs

Region IX—Arizona, California, and Nevada

WestEd/Southwest Regional Educational Laboratory
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, CA 90720

Director: Antonio Sancho

562-598-7661
562-598-9635 fax
www.WestEd.org

Region X—Alaska, American Samoa, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Northern Mariana Islands, Oregon, Republic of Palau, and Washington

Center for National Origin, Race and Sex Equity (CNORSE)
Northwest Regional Education Lab
101 S.W. Main Street, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204-3297

Director: Joyce Harris

503-275-0664
503-275-0452 fax
www.nwrel.org/cnorse/index.html

8. Research Centers

National Research Center on Improving Student Learning and Achievement in English

University of Albany, SUNY
School of Education, B9
1400 Washington Avenue
Albany, NY 12222

518-442-5026
518-442-5933 fax
E-mail: *cela@cnsvax.albany.edu*
Contact: Judith Langer

National Research and Development Center on Achievement in School Mathematics and Science

Wisconsin Center for Education Research
School of Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison
1025 West Johnson Street, Room 557
Madison, WI 53706

608-263-3605
Contact: Thomas A. Romberg

Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing (CRESST)

University of California, Los Angeles
Graduate School of Education
10920 Wilshire Blvd. Suite 900
Los Angeles, CA 90024-6511

310-206-1532
E-mail: *expert@ce.ucla.edu*
Contacts: Eva L. Baker and Robert Linn

National Center for Research on Evaluation, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE)

The Regents of the University of California
The University of California
1156 High Street
Santa Cruz, CA 95064

408-459-3500
Contact: Karen E. Reinero

National Center to Enhance Early Development and Learning

University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill
Frank Porter Graham Child Development Center
CB #4100
Chapel Hill, NC 27599-4100

919-966-4250
Contact: Don Bailey

National Research and Development Center on Increasing the Effectiveness of State and Local Education Reform Efforts

Consortium for Policy Research in Education (CPRE)
Graduate School of Education
University of Pennsylvania
3440 Market Street, Suite 560
Philadelphia, PA 19104-3325

215-573-0700, ext. 224
Email: cpre@nwfs.gse.upenn.edu
Contact: Susan Fuhrman

Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR)

Johns Hopkins University, CSOS
3505 North Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
410-516-8800

and

Howard University
Department of Psychology
Washington, DC 20059
202-806-8484

Contacts:
John H. Hollifield (Johns Hopkins)
Beverly Cole-Henderson (Howard University)

National Reading Research Center

University of Georgia
318 Aderhold
Athens, GA 30602-7125

706-542-3678
Contact: Donna Alvermann

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

9

Articles of Interest

The articles in this section will provide you with in-depth information on topics that were presented in each chapter of the *Help! Kit.*

Under each chapter heading listed below, you will see from one to three referenced articles that appear in bold font. These articles are the ones that are included in the *Help! Kit.*

The remaining articles are listed to provide you with additional knowledge about these specific areas of interest.

Chapter 1

1. **Riddlemoser, N. (1987, November). *Working with limited-English proficient students in the regular classroom.* Washington, DC : ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.**

2. **Menchaca, V.D., & Ruiz-Escalante, J.A. (1995). *Instructional strategies for migrant students* (Report N. EDO-RC-95-10). Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Appalachia Educational Laboratory.**

3. Garcia, E.E. (1997, March). The education of Hispanics in early childhood: Of Roots and Wings. *Young Children,* 5-14. (Copyright 1997 by Eugene Garcia—see inside front cover for information on right and permissions. [Volume, 52, Number 3])

4. Dale, T.C. (1986, December). *Limited-English-proficient students in the schools: Helping the newcomer.* Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.

Chapter 2

1. **Whittaker, C. R., Salend, S. J., & Gutierrez, M. B. (1997, March). Voices from the fields: Including migrant farm workers in the curriculum. *The Reading Teacher, 50* (6), 482-493. (Copyright 1997 International Reading Association)**

2. **Sutton, C. (1990, Summer). Oral language development—Common sense strategies for second language learners in the primary grades. *Elementary ESOL Education News, 13* (1), 1-2.**

3. **Kagan, S. (1995, May). *We can talk: Cooperative learning in the elementary ESL classroom.* Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO-FL-95-08)**

4. Jacob, E. & Matson, B. (1987, September). Cooperative learning with limited-English-proficient students. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.

5. First, C.A. Nations, M. J., Thrush, E. A. (1990, Summer). Tips from the trenches -Sample learning center activities. *Elementary ESOL Education News, 13* (1), 3-5.

Chapter 3

1. Samway, K. D., & Taylor, D. (1993, Spring). Inviting children to make connections between reading and writing. *TESOL Journal*, 7-11.

2. Hamayan, E. V. (1989, Summer).Teaching writing to potentially English proficient students using whole language approaches. *Program Information Guide Series, 11*. Silver Spring, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Chapter 4

1. Crandall, J. (1994, January). *Content-centered language learning*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO-FL-94-06)

2. Tang, G.M. (1992-1993, Winter). Teaching content knowledge and ESOL in multicultural classrooms. *TESOL Journal, 2*(2). Reprinted by permission in *TEACH: Session 3—Study Guide Appendix*, 209-214.

3. Reilly, T. (1998, May). *ESL through content-area instruction*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.

Chapter 5

1. Short, D. J. & Spanos, G. (1989, November). Teaching mathematics to limited English proficient students. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Center for Applied Linguistics.

2. Corwin, R. B. Brahier, D. J., & Speer, W. R. (1993, February). Ideas. *Arithmetic Teacher, 40*(6), 325-332.

3. Capps, L. R. & Pickreign, J. (1993, September). Language connections in mathematics: A critical part of mathematics instruction. *Arithmetic Teacher*, (41) 1, 8-12.

Chapter 6

1. Tannenbaum, J. (1996, May). *Practical ideas on alternative assessment for ESL students*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO-FL-96-07)

2. Derrick-Mescua, M. ( ). Assessment that supports academic success for English languagelearners. In *From Theory to Practice*. Tampa, FL: Region XIV Comprehensive Center.

3. Hoyos, G. (1996, January/February). Help your students beat the testing. *Instructor*, 60-65.

Chapter 7

1. Holman, L. J. (1997, April). Working effectively with Hispanic immigrant families. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 648-649.

2. Montemayor, A. (1996, February 1). Parents as first teachers: Creating an enriched home learning environment. NABE News, 13-17.

3. Martin, P. (1994). *Migrant farm workers and their children* (Report No. EDO-RC- 94-7). Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

4. Valent-Sciences, E., Sutton, C. P. 7 Ware, H. W. (1991). *Fostering home-school cooperation: Involving language minority families as partners in education.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ED289 368

Q&A

Working with Limited–English–Proficient Students in the Regular Classroom

Prepared by Nancy Riddlemoser

November 1987

Special English instruction is an essential component of the limited–English–proficient (LEP) student's education. However, the time spent in the regular, non-English as a second language (ESL) classroom is critical in order to reach the goal of mainstreaming or integrating the LEP population into the regular academic program. With understanding on each educator's part, it is possible for the classroom teacher to productively work with LEP students in his or her classroom in order to maximize the students' exposure to authentic language during the school day.

How Can I Communicate with Students Who Do Not Speak English?

•Speak simply and clearly to the students. Try to speak in short, complete sentences in a normal tone of voice. Unless the student is hearing impaired, it is not necessary to speak loudly.

•Use prompts, cues, facial expressions, body language, visual aids, and concrete objects as often as possible. Pointing and nodding toward an open door while saying "Please, shut the door" is much more effective than giving the command in an isolated context.

•Establish oral/aural routines. Greetings each morning and closure at the end of class permit the student to become familiar with and anticipate limited language experiences. Examples include: "Hello, Juan," "Have a nice weekend," "Bye-bye," "See you tomorrow," "Line up for lunch," and "How are you?"

•Communicate warmth to the student. A smile, hello, and a pat on the back give the student the feeling of support needed in an unfamiliar setting (country, school, etc.). Knowing that the teacher is approachable and willing to work with the student is also important.

•Encourage the student to use English as much as possible and to rely on the native language only for more technical and/or emergency situations.

•Find people in the school or community who speak the student's language. Another LEP student at school or a foreign born or a first generation student who speaks the LEP student's native language at home can aid communication between the LEP student and the teacher. Foreign language teachers and ESL teachers are often able to provide assistance in emergency situations. Parents, church members, large businesses, universities, social service agencies, ethnic restaurants, and foreign merchants are valuable community resources. It is also helpful to know whether any of the LEP student's family members speak English.

•Keep talking to the student. It is normal for him or her to experience a "silent period" that can last days, weeks, or even months. In order to learn the language, the student must first develop active listening skills, followed by speaking, reading, and writing.

How Can I Best Meet the LEP Student's Social and Academic Needs in the Regular Classroom?

The first and most basic need is to ensure that the LEP student feels comfortable and secure. Social and psychological factors are of utmost importance in teaching LEP students. It is often frightening for a student of any age to be placed in a new classroom. This is magnified by the new language and cultural differences and compounded by the possible traumas and hardships that may have occurred prior to the student's move or relocation. In general, expect most children to adapt relatively quickly to the new placement. Teens are a bit slower, and adults usually require the most time.

A "buddy system" is an excellent way to ensure the LEP student is cared for. If possible, you may want more than one buddy for each student. Choose a native language sharer for academics and an "English only" for the more social, active, less technical language-oriented activities. "Buddy duty" should always be portrayed as a special privilege and *not* a chore. Having friends will make the LEP student feel better and help him or her learn more English at a faster rate. It may also increase your other students' acceptance of different nationalities.

Because you wish to enhance your LEP student's self-esteem and school career, pair him or her with someone whose behavior is one you wish modeled. Teaming up a LEP student with a trouble-maker may compound your classroom discipline problems.

Include the LEP student in as many activities, lessons, and assignments as possible, even if only for the socialization aspect. He or she needs the contact, language exposure and "cultural training." This allows the other students to view the LEP student as a true peer, valuable classmate, and desirable friend.

Present a positive approach to your class when dealing with the LEP student. When you say "Juan doesn't understand this, leave him alone" or "This is too hard for Khve," expect some students to avoid him at recess or lunchtime. It would be better to say, "Please help Juan with that page" or "Would you show Khve how we do this?"

Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Have everyone in the building share in the responsibility of teaching the LEP student about your school, class, special projects, and community. This will satisfy the LEP student's sense of belonging and enrich the worlds of the other students and staff members.

If your school has a professional assessment center, it would be to your advantage to have the LEP student evaluated for achievement levels. If your school has an ESL teacher, reading specialist, visiting teacher, psychologist, or guidance counselor, you may feel more comfortable having them assist the student using a standardized battery of tests or conducting an informal survey or inventory.

Of course you will be able to assess many aspects of your student's social and academic development through careful observation. Does the student come to class prepared (with pencils, paper, etc.)? Is the student attentive and eager to participate? Can the student answer questions about his or her name, age, and where he or she is from? To determine specific academic achievement levels, try some of the following activities:

- Ask the student to copy the alphabet and numbers.
- Ask him or her to recite (or write) the alphabet and numbers from memory.
- Ask the student to repeat names of objects after you. (Show pictures of foods, vehicles, people, etc.).
- Ask the student to read a sample from the previous grade level. If he or she cannot, try a sample from a lower grade level (beginning with first grade, if appropriate), and determine up to which grade level the student can read.
- Ask the student to answer math computation problems from the previous grade level. If he or she cannot, try problems from a lower level. Math can be an important tool in determining appropriate grade level placement or grouping.

Date, sign, and keep a record of your findings. Whether a sophisticated tool or a very informal tool is used, the student's school career and subsequent progress may be measured against this. Compare what you have found with available grades, reports, or tests in the student's records. Note any changes or discrepancies between these records and your own findings.

An inability to reproduce sounds and difficulty in copying or writing may be normal phases in a LEP student's acquisition of English. However, they may also point to a learning disability. It is possible that a LEP student may need special education services.

Furthermore, many factors may drastically affect the LEP student's mental health, including traumas, experiences overseas, problems adapting to a new environment, and poor living conditions in the present environment. Some students may never have been to school before. Slowness in catching on to "simple" concepts could be lack of educational exposure, newness of material, or a learning disability.

In addressing the student's academic needs, remember to provide learning experiences and assignments that will enable him or her to feel productive, challenged, and successful. The LEP student needs a variety of tasks and assignments closely related to what the students in the regular classroom are doing. For example, while your class is working on math, the LEP student may work on a math assignment as well, perhaps of lesser difficulty. The important thing is that he or she is becoming more organized and involved in class routine.

Keep communication lines open. Try to coordinate whatever the ESL teacher is doing with what goes on in your class. The consistency and repetition of concepts and/or lessons can only help the LEP student.

In class discussion, call on the student as soon as possible. Even if the LEP student cannot speak much English, have him or her come to the board to point to the map, complete the number line, circle the correct answer, etc. Assign responsibilities such as washing the board, passing out papers, collecting homework, sharpening pencils, serving as line leader, etc. These activities will help the LEP student feel special and useful and help to develop citizenship skills.

What Techniques, Instructional Materials and Resources Are Recommended for Use with LEP Students?

It is important to maintain high expectations of LEP students, be prepared for their success and progress, and keep in mind that LEP students are generally not a remedial population. Usually the younger the student, the sooner he or she will "catch up" and "catch on."

If the student is receiving ESL instruction, your job may be easier if you establish a close relationship with the ESL teacher. Together you can plan the student's educational program. If there is no ESL teacher, you may work directly with the foreign language teacher(s), reading specialist, special education teacher, parent volunteers, or anyone else who may have resources, ideas, and time to share.

At the elementary level you can borrow workbooks, teaching aids, audio visual equipment, and assignment sheets from the lower grades. Curriculum guides and the entry/exit minimum skill requirements for each grade level are excellent resource guidelines.

Native language dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and picture dictionaries (of varying degrees of difficulty) are essentials for you and the LEP student. Encourage and expect the student to make use of these and any other suitable reference materials as soon as possible.

Your primary techniques will involve 1) individualizing; 2) adapting; and 3) modifying classwork for the LEP student. Always consider his or her language development, study skills and the subject content while doing so. Examples of these techniques are described below.

- *Individualizing:* If the LEP student in an elementary classroom clearly comprehends the meaning of words for a spelling lesson yet cannot express the meaning of the words orally, you may wish to individualize the spelling assignment by allowing him or her to "draw the definition" of each word. The LEP student who is unable to define the word *car*, for example, as "a moving vehicle with four wheels" could convey his or her understanding of the concept by drawing a simple diagram or illustration. Individualizing a science project at the secondary level may require a detailed picture or model of the subject being studied (i.e., the heart, plants, the weather) with labels being copied in English and possibly in the student's native language.
- *Adapting:* Adapting a primary or secondary level mathematics test or textbook for the LEP student whose computational skills are well–developed but whose reading skills are less so may involve deleting word problems in math altogether. To compensate for this deletion, you may wish to add more computational problems or to grade only the computation part of a test. Social studies assignments,

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

on the other hand, may require more language than the student possesses. Therefore, you may find simple memorization activities helpful for the LEP student; sample activities may include memorizing the states of the United States and their respective capitals, the names of the seven continents of the world, five explorers of the New World, or three Presidents of the United States. Activities such as unscrambling key vocabulary terms or matching vocabulary words with their definitions are also useful.

Modifying: In an elementary reading class, it would be quite feasible to use a lower level basal series for "reading time." The LEP student would still be responsible for reading but at a suitable pace and appropriate level. At both the elementary and secondary levels, spelling, grammar, and punctuation exercises may be assigned from a lower level textbook or workbook that corresponds to whatever the class is learning at the time.

Remember to frequently include concrete objects and everyday experiences across the curriculum. This will give the student a solid base in dealing with his or her new environment. Examples include:

Mathematics: using the calendar; handling money in the cafeteria or store.

Telling Time: changing classes; using daily movie, TV, and bus schedules.

Vital Statistics: height, weight, and age.

Survival Skills: address and telephone number, measuring distance; reading cooking measurements; making shopping lists, etc.

Science: hands-on experiments, plant and animal care, charts, graphs, illustrations, specimens.

Social Studies: hands-on experiences such as field trips, movies, magazine and newspaper clippings, collages, maps, flags, customs, and "show and tell," using materials from home or travels.

Art, Music and Physical Education: participating in all instructional and recreational activities; inviting the student to share activities of this nature from his homeland. These courses may provide the only outlets for the LEP student to express him– or herself.

Design a seating arrangement where the LEP student can be involved with whole group, individual, and peer group activities. The LEP student needs a flexible arrangement to fit his or her special needs. Sometimes just a small space where it is possible to concentrate is sufficient. You may find it helpful to seat the student near you or his or her buddy.

Will the LEP Student Understand My Classroom Rules and Follow Directions?

LEP students will follow your classroom rules very much the same way other students do. Indeed, it is important that the LEP student learn your classroom management system as soon as possible; otherwise, potential discipline problems may arise such as unruly behavior, classmate ridicule, and feelings of resentment. Although the first weeks may be a confusing time for the LEP student, it is important that he or she understand your expectations from the very beginning.

•The use of visibly displayed charts, graphs, and reward systems will assist you in communicating your expectations. Illustrate with symbols or pictures if there is any doubt about the difficulty of the language level.

•Reminders of rules and their consequences (both positive and negative) need to be in plain sight or easily accessible. Smiley faces, sad faces, checks, stars, 100% and for your younger students, stickers, are all easily recognizable symbols and quickly learned.

•Demonstrate consistency, concern, and control. These may be conveyed nonverbally, and an alert student will recognize classroom routines and expectations, like checking homework or going to the office for a tardy slip, very early in the school year. The LEP student's understanding of common classroom rewards such as "stickers," "outside," "treat," and "grade" are proof that the LEP student knows what is happening in the classroom. He or she must therefore be held to the same standards of appropriate behavior as the other students, and be rewarded or punished accordingly. Moreover, the other students need to see that the LEP student is treated as an equal.

•At the beginning, LEP students will attempt to follow verbal directions while actually observing modeled behavior. So, while speaking about a math problem in the text, for example, point to someone who has his or her math book open; hold up a ruler when telling the students to use a ruler for their work; when students are coloring maps for social studies, have a student show the LEP student his box of crayons, point to the map and nod "yes."

•While others are doing seatwork, the LEP student may copy from the board or a book, practice using appropriate worksheets, work quietly with a peer, listen to tapes, use a language master, or illustrate a topic.

•Design a list of commonly used "directional" words such as *circle, write, draw, cut, read, fix, copy, underline, match, add, subtract.* Have the LEP student find these "action" words in a picture dictionary with a buddy or alone. Then have the student illustrate these words with symbols or translate them into the native language. The student may keep these words in the front of a notebook, on the desk, or in a pencil case. They will help the LEP student become an independent learner, capable of being resourceful and occupied when you are not available to help. Underline or circle these terms on the board, on worksheets, or in consumable texts. When these words are recognized by the student, you can expect him or her to complete the assigned tasks independently.

What Can I Do to Learn About the LEP Student's Culture?

•Ask the student about his country and enthusiastically assign the country to your class as a social studies project. Engage the entire school in international education. The more you and your class ask and learn from the LEP student, the sooner he or she will feel confident and comfortable.

•Go to the library; read *National Geographic;* invite foreign speakers to your school such as families, religious leaders, merchants, visiting professionals. Keep current on movies, traveling exhibits, local festivals. Listen to the news and discuss pertinent issues with the class.

•Find out which holidays the LEP student celebrates and how they are celebrated. Find out whether the LEP student's customs are similar to American customs. On United Nations Day or during Brotherhood Week, have the students make flags and foods from different countries. Perhaps the LEP student has clothes, money, photos, artwork, songs, games, maps, an alphabet or number charts to share with other students. All are valid educational media. Invite

foreign parents to teach their native languages in your class for an exciting project. Celebrate "Christmas Around the World."

What Specific Activities Can I Do to Prepare the LEP Student for Life in the United States?

•Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large LEP population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

IN CLASS

•Class rules (rewards, enforcement, consequences).
•School conduct.
•Morning rituals (greetings, calendar work, assignments, collection of money, homework).
•Library conduct (checkout, book return).
•Field trips/permission slips.
•Gym (participation, showers, attire).
•School photographs (dress, payment).
•Substitutes.
•Seat work/group work.
•Tests, quizzes, reports.
•Grades, report cards, incompletes.
•"Treats."
•Free time.
•Teams (choosing, assigning).
•Standardized testing (exemptions).
•Exams.
•Special projects (extra credit, double grades).

IN SCHOOL

•Breaks: bathroom, water, recess.
•Cafeteria routines: line formation, lunch passes.
•Fire drills.
•Assemblies/pep rallies/awards/ awards ceremonies.
•Contests/competitions.
•Holidays/festivities/traditions.
•Fund raisers/"drives."
•Routine health exams, screening.
•Suspension.
•Guidance counseling.
•Disciplinary methods (in–school suspension).
•Free lunch (income verification).
•"Family life" education (sex education).

AFTER SCHOOL

•Parent conferences and attendance.
•PTA meetings.
•Proms, dances, special events.
•Field days.
•Clubs, honor societies, sport activities.
•Detention.
•Summer school.

Resources

The National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education is a federally funded center which provides information on programs, instructional materials, research, and other resources related to the education of LEP students. The Clearinghouse can also provide information on additional networks of federally funded centers that serve school districts with LEP students. Eligibility for free technical assistance from these centers varies according to funding priorities. For information, write or call: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 8737 Colesville Road, Suite 900, Silver Spring, MD 20910. Telephone: (301) 588-6898 or 1-800-647-0123.

For Further Reading

Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (1986). *Bilingualism in education: Aspects of theory, research and practice*. New York, NY: Longman.

Dodge, D.R., Guillen, L., Panfil, K., Bryant, B., Plitt, W., Kohn, E. (1985). *A classroom teacher's handbook for building English proficiency*. Washington, DC: Creative Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 275 135)

Guillen, L. (1985). *A resource book for building English proficiency*. Washington, DC: Creative Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction No. ED 275 135)

Hittleman, D.R. (1983). *Developmental reading, K–8: Teaching from a psycholinguistic perspective* (2nd ed.), Chapter 12. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Larsen–Freeman, D. (1986). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Ovando, C. J., & Collier, V.P. (1985). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts*. New York, NY: McGraw–Hill.

Paulston, C.B., & Bruder, M.N. (1976). *Teaching English as a second language: Techniques and procedures*. Boston: Little, Brown.

Richards, J., & Rogers, T. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Savignon, S. (1983). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice*. Boston: Addison–Wesley.

Seelye, H. N. (1984). *Teaching culture: Strategies for intercultural communication*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

This report was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. 400–86–0019. The opinions expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of OERI or ED.
Office of Educational Research and Improvement *U.S. Department of Education*

EDO-RC-95-10 October 1995

Instructional Strategies for Migrant Students

Velma D. Menchaca and José A. Ruiz-Escalante

ERIC DIGEST

CHILDREN OF MIGRANT farmworkers spend parts of each school year in different communities across the country; some children migrate back and forth between schools in Mexico and the U.S. (Martin, 1994). The hardships and rich experiences of this lifestyle provide educators with unique challenges and, at the same time, opportunities to learn and develop new strategies. This Digest offers research-based guidance for teachers, to help them use effective instructional strategies that will build on strengths migrant children bring to the classroom. The Digest does not address language instruction; for Digests that do, see EDO-RC-91-2 and EDO-RC-90-9.

Background

The National Agricultural Worker Survey found that migrant farmworkers were mostly Hispanic (94%) with 80 percent born in Mexico. However, about 6 to 10 percent of migrants are White or Black Americans. The average annual income for migrant families is $5,000 (Martin, 1994). Some live in housing that does not meet minimum inspection standards, and many suffer occupation-related health problems such as farm injuries and pesticide poisoning. Many also suffer health problems related to poverty, such as malnutrition and poor sanitation (Huang, 1993).

Several factors associated with the migrant lifestyle predispose migrant students to being at risk of dropping out of school early (Baca & Harris, 1988; Platt, Cranston-Gingras, & Scott, 1991). Irregular school attendance, traveling from one temporary site to another, and limited English language proficiency can limit the school success rate of these students, leading some to drop out of school as early as the upper elementary grades. As with all students, migrant students achieve best when the schools honor and value who they are. With that in mind, the following instructional strategies are recommended to help teachers help migrant students overcome circumstances that may jeopardize their success.

Instructional Strategies

Create a positive environment. Migrant students often find themselves in new and unfamiliar classrooms. The challenge of adjusting to strange, new living and learning environments often contributes to feelings of isolation and loneliness. Teachers can help students overcome these feelings by modeling respect and eliminating any form of threat or ridicule. Teachers can further foster a sense of safety and trust by sharing some of their own experiences, and by assigning older students to act as mentors or buddies to new migrant students. For a collection of strategies and activities designed to promote mutual respect, trust, and support in the classroom, see *Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate* (Huggins, 1983a).

Build on migrant students' strengths. Most migrant students have lived, traveled, and studied in several states. Teachers can incorporate into lessons these diverse experiences and the richness of students' cultures and languages. Examples include recognizing migrant children for their travel experiences, knowledge of geography, and for overcoming crises on the highway. Building on these experiences and capabilities validates students' knowledge. Such validation enhances students' self-images and sense of self-worth (Gonzales, 1991).

Enhance self-concept and self-esteem. Migrant students must have faith in their own abilities so that they can persist and succeed despite the many obstacles they encounter in school. Having a positive self-concept helps students achieve, which then further enhances self-esteem (Studstill, 1985). When necessary, teachers should modify assignments to allow for real success in meaningful activities that are valued by the student and by others, such as family and friends (Studstill, 1985). MACRO Educational Associates, Inc.'s (1974) *Teacher Resource Guide for the Development of Positive Self-Concept in Migrant Children* describes effective methods and materials used in developing positive self-concepts for migrant students. Another resource, *Building Self-Concept in the Classroom* (Huggins, 1983b), provides activities designed to promote self-awareness, build self-esteem and cope effectively with mistakes and put-downs.

Personalize lessons with students' experiences. Drawing from students' life experiences in lessons helps students understand ideas and transfer them to other content. To find out about students' experiences, teachers can have children write or tell about them (MACRO Educational Associates, Inc., 1974). Later, teachers can incorporate both their own experiences and the experiences of the children into lessons in content areas such as language arts, social studies, and science. Teachers can personalize content by using familiar places and names in addition to using analogies to connect new concepts to students' experiences (Tinajero, 1984).

Integrate culturally relevant content. A curriculum that includes culturally relevant content enables migrant students to develop pride in their culture and learn content from a familiar cultural base (Martínez & Ortiz de Montellano, 1988). Examples of books that focus on the lives, challenges, or adventures of children of different cultures include *Pablo's Tree* (Mora, 1994), *The Rough-Face Girl* (Martin, 1992), or *Too Many Tamales* (Soto, 1993). Teachers can read to students, generate discussion, and then have

Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools
including
Alaska Natives and American Indians, Mexican Americans, Migrants, Outdoor Education

Appalachia Educational Laboratory
PO Box 1348
Charleston, WV
25325-1348

the students either write or share in groups some similarities and differences between the book's characters and the students' own lives. Such cultural material can be used in social studies, science, reading, or language arts.

Encouraging positive ethnic affiliation serves multiple purposes. It can influence the development of values, attitudes, lifestyle choices, and approaches to learning (Gollnick & Chinn, 1994). Nurturing ethnic affiliation also helps all students learn about and respect other cultural groups' heritages and histories, while keeping their own culture instilled in their hearts and their minds.

Use cooperative learning. Both theory and research support cooperative learning as an effective instructional strategy. Studies have shown that migrant students do well in cooperative learning settings because they sense other students are encouraging and supporting their efforts to achieve (Johnson, Johnson, & Maruyama, 1983). Cooperative learning lowers anxiety levels and strengthens motivation, self-esteem, and empowerment by using students as instructional agents for their classmates (Platt, Cranston-Gingras, & Scott, 1991). Students take responsibility for both their own learning and the learning of their peers. By becoming active group participants, they gain equal access to learning opportunities. *Teaching Cooperative Skills* (Huggins, 1983c) provides guidance in leading activities that enable students to work cooperatively in pairs or in small groups.

Develop students' metacognitive learning strategies. This strategy is used to help students become independent learners by helping them comprehend concepts, monitoring their success, and making the necessary adjustments when meaning breaks down. Students learn to recognize when they are approaching an obstacle, make necessary corrections, and proceed.

Teachers instruct students to employ alternative strategies once they have recognized and determined a breakdown in comprehension. For example, if a student is reading and has difficulty understanding the text, he or she could apply some "fix-it" strategies (Baker & Brown, 1984), such as

- ignore and read on,
- anticipate the problem to be resolved by future information,
- make an educated guess based on prior knowledge,
- reflect on what has already been read,
- reread the current sentence or paragraph, or
- consult the glossary, encyclopedia, or teacher (Collins & Smith, 1980).

Conclusion

Migrant students present a challenge to our educational system and, at the same time, they enrich it. Some of the enriching factors these students bring into our schools are their cultural and ethnic heritage and their knowledge of more than one language. They also have extensive travel experiences and first-hand experience with our nation's agricultural, dairy, or fishing-related industries. It is important that educators build on the richness of migrant students' experiences and culture to make learning more meaningful. Educators should present authentic real-life examples to students, make content information culturally relevant, and use instructional strategies that promote cooperative learning and develop students' metacognitive skills. When migrant students can relate to the information being presented, they are more likely to understand academic concepts and experience success in school.

References

Baca, L., & Harris, K. C. (1988). Teaching migrant exceptional children. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 20*(4), 32-35.

Baker, L., & Brown, A. (1984). Metacognitive skills and reading. In P. D. Pearson, R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, & P. Mosenthal, (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research, Vol. I* (353-394). New York: Longman.

Collins, A., & Smith, E. (1980). *Teaching the process of reading comprehension (Tech. Report No. 182.)*. Urbana: Illinois University, Center for the Study of Reading. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 193 616)

Gollnick, D. M., & Chinn, P. C. (1994). *Multicultural education in a pluralistic society* (4th ed.). New York: Merrill.

Gonzales, E. (1991). *Validating the student's culture in the classroom*. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association.

Huang, G. (1993). *Health problems among migrant farmworkers' children in the U.S. ERIC Digest*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 347 907)

Huggins, P. (1983a). *Establishing a positive classroom climate*. Seattle, WA: The Northwest Clearinghouse for Gifted Children.

Huggins, P. (1983b). *Building self-concept in the classroom*. Seattle, WA: The Northwest Clearinghouse for Gifted Children.

Huggins, P. (1983c). *Teaching cooperative skills*. Seattle, WA: The Northwest Clearinghouse for Gifted Children.

Johnson, D., Johnson, R., & Maruyama, G. (1983). Interdependence and interpersonal attraction among heterogeneous and homogeneous individuals: A theoretical formulation and a meta-analysis of the research. *Review of Educational Research, 53*(1), 5-54.

MACRO Educational Associates, Inc. (1974). *Teacher resource guide for the development of positive self-concept in migrant children*. Buffalo: author. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 147 081)

Marinez, D. I., & Ortiz de Montellano, B. R. (1988). *Improving the science and mathematic achievement of Mexican American students through culturally relevant science. ERIC Digest*. Las Cruces, NM: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 296 819)

Martin, P. (1994). *Migrant farmworkers and their children*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 376 997)

Martin, R. (1992). *The Rough-Face Girl*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mora, P. (1994). *Pablo's Tree*. New York: Macmillan.

Platt, J. S., Cranston-Gingras, A., & Scott, J. (1991). Understanding and educating migrant students. *Preventing School Failure, 36*(1), 41-46.

Shotland, J. (1989). *Full fields, empty cupboards: The nutritional status of migrant farmworkers in America*. Washington, DC: Public Voice for Food and Health Policy. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 323 076)

Soto, G. (1993). *Too Many Tamales*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Studstill, J. (1985). *Enhancing self-concept and self-esteem: Program planning and teaching techniques for educators of migrant students*. Atlanta, GA: Georgia State University, Center for Urban Research and Service. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 266 006)

Tinajero, J. (1984). Some helpful strategies for the ESL content area teacher. *Reading Improvement, 21*, 332-337.

Velma D. Menchaca is an assistant professor of secondary education and multicultural education at Southwest Texas State University. José A. Ruíz-Escalante is an associate professor of bilingual bicultural education at the University of Texas—Permian Basin.

This publication was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. RR93002012. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of OERI, the Department, or AEL.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools is operated by the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL), Inc. AEL serves as the Regional Educational Laboratory for Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia and operates the Eisenhower Regional Math/Science Consortium for these same four states. AEL is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Employer.

EDO-RC-95-10

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Catharine R. Whittaker
Spencer J. Salend
Maria B. Gutierrez

"Voices From the Fields": Including migrant farmworkers in the curriculum

Resources and strategies for creating a curriculum that reflects and affirms the experiences of migrant children are presented and explained.

The students in Pat Rust's fourth-grade class lived in an area of upstate New York known for its apple and sweet corn production. However, none of the fourth graders knew that hundreds of migrant families spent the summer in their community harvesting these crops because most of the migrant families moved south before school started. Pat decided that she would develop and implement a unit to introduce students to the culture of migrancy through use of children's literature, videos, photojournalism, and guest speakers.

As part of the unit, the students read *A Migrant Family* (Brimmer, 1992) in cooperative learning groups, and Pat read aloud for the class *Lights on the River* (Thomas, 1994). The students learned that because migrant children move often to harvest crops, they attend different schools that vary in the content, sequence, and delivery of the curriculum. They also learned that migrant students may fall behind in their classes because they have to stay home to take care of their younger siblings or help in the fields.

Toward the end of the unit, Pat invited a supervisor from the local Migrant Education Center to speak to the class and answer some of the questions the students still had about local migrant workers. The supervisor explained that most migrant children attend at least two different schools each year, and some may attend as many as six different schools in a year. After the guest speaker made this point, Crystal, one of the students in the class who was experiencing behavioral and academic problems, raised her hand and said, "That's why it's hard for me to do fractions. They didn't teach me that in my last school." Although Crystal's parents were not migrant workers, Crystal's family had moved frequently. Later, when Pat spoke with the class about improving their interactions with one another, they seemed to have a better understanding of the reasons why some students were having difficulty in school.

©1997 International Reading Association

Giving voice to migrant children

Pat Rust's students were learning about culturally and linguistically diverse children whose educational and social needs have not been adequately addressed in the U.S., the children of migrant families (Baca & Harris, 1988; National Commission on Migrant Education, 1992). Migrant families are often close-knit, and family members take their responsibility for one another very seriously (Atkin, 1993). Migrant parents and adolescents are hard-working, frequently toiling in the fields 6 to 7 days per week, 10 or more hours per day. Their labor is essential to the success of agriculture in the United States and contributes to the relatively low cost of fruits, vegetables, and food products (Ashabranner, 1985). Despite their hard work, migrant families receive little assistance from governmental and community agencies. They are often invisible members of the communities in which they work. Since they live in camps near the fields, their trips to town are limited by time, distance, and economics. Community members are frequently unaware that migrant farmworkers are important contributors to the community's welfare.

Migrant families view education as their children's way out of the cycle of migrancy and have a high respect for the teacher's professional opinion (Diaz, Trotter, & Rivera, 1989). However, as migrant families travel from place to place, their children encounter many difficulties that hinder their ability to achieve success in school. For example, approximately 25% of migrant students enroll in school more than 30 days after school begins (Research Triangle Institute, 1992). Approximately 40% of migrant students may experience difficulties in the classroom because they are in the process of learning English as a second language (National Commission on Migrant Education, 1992). Several times a year migrant children may have to adjust to new friends, a second language, different cultural and academic expectations, and varying graduation requirements. Frequent relocation and language differences also seriously hinder access to community services (Coballes-Vega & Salend, 1988).

These factors contribute to the poor academic performance and low self-esteem of migrant students, but another important factor is the failure of existing school curricula and instructional materials to reflect the aspirations, histories, and contributions of migrant workers and their children (Gutierrez, 1994). A learning environment and instructional materials that integrate the experiences of migrant students and their families into the curriculum may improve the school performance of migrant students (Gutierrez, 1994). Using materials that connect with students' prior knowledge can improve comprehension and promote a positive self-concept (Weaver, 1994).

These beliefs about the importance of including texts that give voice to the migrant lifestyle are supported by reader response theory, which contends that reading is a transaction between the reader and the text (Egan-Robertson, 1993; Holland, Hungerford, & Ernst, 1993). As readers construct meaning, they may approach text to seek information, the efferent stance, or to respond personally, the aesthetic stance (Rosenblatt, 1982). Thus, the readers' past experiences with language and the world, personal feelings, and attitudes mold their responses to and success with the materials they encounter (Rosenblatt, 1938). Unfortunately, migrant students have difficulty recognizing their culture and primary language in the words and images they experience in schools and classrooms.

A learning environment that integrates the experiences of migrant students and their families into the curriculum may improve their school performance.

Although the migrant lifestyle is characterized by hard and often hazardous work, exposure to pesticides, low wages, poor working and housing conditions, limited health care, and social isolation (Interstate Migrant Education Council, 1992; United States General Accounting Office, 1992), the positive contributions and strengths of migrant workers and their families are often overlooked. For example, the migrant lifestyle has provided many migrant workers and their families with a broad range of experiences with different people and geographical regions throughout the United

155 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

States and an understanding of the challenges of adjusting to and appreciating various cultural norms and communication styles.

This article presents suggestions and resources for integrating reading and writing activities into the curriculum that reflect the experiences of migrant students and their families. These resources and suggestions also may be used as a springboard for discussing and relating the curriculum to the experiences of students who move frequently, such as children of military and immigrant families, and students who reside on farms or in agricultural areas. In addition, incorporating classroom activities within the curriculum that relate to migrant students and their families sensitizes all students to the unique experiences of migrant workers and the importance of migrant workers to society (Salend, 1994).

Reading about the migrant experience

Literature about migrant farmworkers can be an effective means of promoting literacy and affirming the experiences of migrant students and their families (Sawyer, 1987). Traditional tales, autobiographies and biographies, historical and contemporary fiction, poetry, and information books that reflect the experiences of migrant workers and their families can motivate migrant and nonmigrant students to read and respond from both efferent and aesthetic stances (Norton, 1990; Rosenblatt, 1982). Too often teachers focus only on the efferent response. However, as demonstrated in the following classroom illustration, emotional and experiential responses often make reading or listening a meaningful, anticipated activity.

> Seven boys, who were attending a summer school program for migrant students, gathered around to hear Sherley Anne Williams's *Working Cotton*. They ranged in age from 4 to 7; two were African American and the others were Mexican American. Williams's use of African American English and Carole Byard's bold illustrations convey the rich sensory experience of a small child who goes with her parents to the cotton fields. These seven boys' parents worked in the corn and apple fields of upstate New York, so they did not recognize the pictures of the cotton balls or the scales that weighed the cotton. However, they immediately associated with the fire that kept them warm in the early morning, the singing and humming of adults in the fields, and the need to drink as much liquid as possible when the sun is high in the sky. One of the African American boys said that the strong African American man whose arm muscles bulged and who wore a large straw hat looked like his father. The 4-year-old, who had come to school for the first day, started out fearfully hiding under a table but soon sat contented in the reader's lap. (Whittaker, 1995)

This reading of *Working Cotton* illustrates the connections that a culturally conscious book can form within and among readers (Sims, 1982). Many, but not all, of the facts in the story were understandable to each child. However, because Williams chose aesthetic images that were familiar to the children's personal experience, they readily shared their responses in a meaningful way.

Sharing books about the migrant workers with students who know little about that lifestyle can help students respect other cultures and empathize with others' experiences. The values of family, education, hard work, faith, and respect that these books portray evoke an emotional response that transcends cultural and experiential backgrounds. Although some students may find particular aspects of the migrant lifestyle to be completely different from their own experience, many will respond to the warmth and joy reflected during an intergenerational family celebration. Joan Thomas's (1994) *Lights on the River* includes both of these scenarios in the poignant story of Teresa's Mexican family as they travel with "their houses on their backs" to pick crops in the United States.

> After Pat read *Lights on the River* to her fourth-grade class, she asked her students what they liked about the story. Several liked the illustrations while another student liked "the words." One girl enjoyed the way that Teresa used her imagination. "Would you like to be Teresa?" Pat asked. Most of the students said they wouldn't since she had to live in a chicken coop, use an outhouse, leave her friends, and was sometimes hungry. However, several of the students liked the idea of traveling frequently. Another thought it would be nice to live in a family where there wasn't any fighting. (Whittaker, 1995)

Although Thomas's portrayal of migrant life is often stark, there are beautiful moments such as the Christmas celebration in the grandparents' Mexican community when everyone floats lighted boats down the river. The novelty of such traditions arouses the outsiders' interests, and the universal appeal of a grandmother's love makes us part of the family.

Rosenblatt (1982) notes that almost any text can be read efferently and aesthetically. Information books can often evoke some of the strongest emotional responses. After reading the information book *Children of the Dust*

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 1
Annotated bibliography of fiction and nonfiction on migrant farmworkers

Book	Format	Interest level	Description
The Smallest Cow in the World by K. Patterson (1991)	Color drawings	K – 2	Marvin's family moves so his father can work at a new dairy farm. Marvin is angry and misbehaves, so he invents a miniature cow to blame for his pranks.
Apple Picking Time by M.B. Slawson (1994)	Color drawings	2 – 5	Anna and her family spend a fall day picking apples with others in their small town in Washington state where such community efforts were once a tradition and a necessity.
Working Cotton by S.A. Williams (1992)	Color drawings	2 – 4	This Caldecott Honor Book, written in Black English, presents a young girl's description of one day in the cotton fields of Fresno, California, USA.
El Camino de Amelia by L.J. Altman (1993)	Color drawings; English and Spanish	3 – 5	Written in Spanish, the story describes a migrant family's daily life through the eyes of the youngest daughter, Amelia. (Also available in English as *Amelia's Road*.)
Lights on the River by J.R. Thomas (1994)	Color drawings	3 – 5	Teresa dreams of her grandmother's home in Mexico as she takes care of siblings while her parents pick cucumbers. The illustrations enhance the bittersweet story of carrying "your home on your back."
Radio Man by A. Dorros (1993)	Color drawings	3 – 5	Written in bilingual text with colorful illustrations, the story traces a Mexican American migrant family's travels from Texas to the Northwestern U.S. to pick vegetables and fruits.
Calling the Doves by J.F. Herrera (1995)	Color drawings	3 – 5	Poetic reminiscences of the author's childhood explore Mexican American culture and celebrate the closeness of the migrant family.
The Godmother Tree by R. Wallace-Brodeur (1988)	Text only	4 – 6	A Vermont dairy farmworker and his family move to another farm for better pay and housing. The three children each adjust differently to their new school and community.
The Velvet Room by Z.K. Snyder (1965)	Black-and-white drawings	4 – 6	The Williams family loses their dairy farm in the late 1930s and travels through the San Fernando Valley looking for work in the fruit orchards. The plot revolves around a mystery concerning the history of the ranch where the family works.
Roosevelt Grady by L. Shotwell (1963)	Black-and-white drawings	4 – 6	Roosevelt Grady and his family travel up the east coast of the U.S. picking beans, corn, pears, and apples. Roosevelt longs to attend school for more than 3 weeks in one town.
Blue Willow by D. Gates (1940)	Black-and-white drawings	4 – 6	This Newbery Award winner traces the migration of the Larkins as they are forced to move to the San Joacquin Valley in California to work in the cotton fields. The conditions of their housing, health, schooling, and community relations are described through the eyes of their daughter.

(continued)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 1
Annotated bibliography of fiction and nonfiction on migrant farmworkers (cont'd.)

Book	Format	Interest level	Description
A Migrant Family by L. Brimner (1992)	Black-and-white photographs	5 – adult	The Ruizes and other families in their tent camp move often when local authorities destroy their makeshift homes. The controversies surrounding today's migrants are discussed including immigration status, competition for jobs, wages, crime, and education.
La Causa: The Farmworkers' Story by D. DeRuiz & R. Larios (1993)	Black-and-white drawings	4 – 6	Cesar Chavez and Dolores Huerta struggle for better wages and working conditions for the National Farm Workers Association. The strike, the march to Sacramento, and the eventual agreement are chronicled.
Children of the Dust Bowl: The True Story of School at Weedpatch Camp by J. Stanley (1992)	Black-and-white photographs	5 – 7	This Orbis Pictus Award winner describes the Okies as they leave the Dust Bowl and look for work in California, where they find hostility and poverty. At one migrant camp the children gain an education and self-respect by building their own school.
Voices from the Fields: Children of Migrant Farmworkers Tell Their Stories by S.B. Atkin (1993)	Black-and-white photographs	7 – adult	Poems and short stories written by migrant children express conflicts between work and play, school and wages, family and independence, travel and stability.
Earth Angels by N. Buirski (1994)	Color photographs	all ages	Recent photographs of migrant children across the U.S. strikingly depict the strength of the family despite substandard living and working conditions.
An American Exodus: A Record of Human Erosion in the Thirties by D. Lange & P.S. Taylor (1993)	Black-and-white photographs	7 – adult	The photographs and accompanying quotes from farmworkers, newspapers, and farm owners during the 1930s vividly depict the technological, environmental, and political factors that shaped the plight of migrant workers during this period.
Dark Harvest: Migrant Farmworkers in America by B. Ashabranner (1985)	Black-and-white photographs	7 – adult	Using interviews with and observations of migrant workers and their families, Ashabranner presents a detailed account of the migrant experience.
The Grapes of Wrath by J. Steinbeck (1939)	Text only	9 – adult	John Steinbeck's classic portrayal of the Joad family's migration from Oklahoma to California publicized the trials of agricultural families displaced by the Dust Bowl and sagging economic conditions of the 1930s.
Fruit Tramps: A Family of Migrant Farmworkers by H. Emmet (1989)	Black-and-white photographs	9 – adult	Photojournalist Herman Emmet portrays the marginal existence of the Tindals, a migrant family, as they travel between Florida and the Carolinas. The photographs and dialogue create an intimate view of this proud but downtrodden family.

(continued)

Figure 1
Annotated bibliography of fiction and nonfiction on migrant farmworkers (cont'd.)

Book	Format	Interest level	Description
Big Sugar: Seasons in the Cane Fields of Florida by A. Wilkinson (1989)	Text only	9 – adult	Caribbean sugar cane workers come to South Florida each year to cut sugar cane. The history and politics of the industry and the hardships of the workers are documented.
The Harvest Gypsies: On the Road to the Grapes of Wrath by J. Steinbeck (1988)	Black-and-white photographs	9 – adult	John Steinbeck's stories written for *The San Francisco News* in 1936 and Dorothea Lange's photographs are compelling in their portrayal of the conflict between migratory laborers and growers.
Uprooted Children by R. Coles (1970)	Color drawings by children	9 – adult	Robert Coles synthesizes his findings from several years of interviews with children of White, Black, and Mexican American migrant workers traveling the Eastern seaboard.
Macho! by V. Villaseñor (1991)	Text only	9 – adult	Victor Villaseñor's novel traces the travels of 17-year-old Roberto Garcia from a rural village in Mexico to the vegetable fields of California. The book also chronicles the attempts to unionize farmworkers.
...y no se lo trago la tierra by T. Rivera and translation by E. Vigil-Pinon (1992)	Spanish and English versions	10 – adult	Tomas Rivera's novel about the experience of Mexican American migrant workers in the 1940s and 1950s is presented in Spanish with an English translation by Evangelina Vigil-Pinon.
This Migrant Earth by T. Rivera and translation by R. Hinojosa (1987)	Text only; English translation	10 – adult	Rolando Hinojosa's English translation of Tomas Rivera's *...y no se lo trago la tierra*.
The Harvest (bilingual edition) by T. Rivera and translation by J. Olivares (1989)	Spanish and English versions	10 – adult	This bilingual edition includes the original Spanish versions and English translations by Julian Olivares of Tomas Rivera's short stories about the lives of migrant workers.

Bowl: The True Story of School at Weedpatch Camp (Stanley, 1992), a teacher who grew up in a migrant family reflected,

> As I read about the Okies, it seemed as if I was reading about people many years ago feeling the same way I did when I was a migrant. In chapter 2, when they talk about California being sort of a magical world for Okies, I couldn't help remembering that for my family, and many others, the magical world is the United States. We all heard about how easy it was to find a job and make money here in the states. So, of course, we wanted to come here too. (Gutierrez, personal communication, June 1995)

An annotated bibliography of books dealing specifically with the migrant students and their families is presented in Figure 1. Secondary students may benefit from reading and discussing nonfiction and fiction that traces, documents, and analyzes the experiences of migrant workers and their families as they travel throughout the United States and to and from other countries, such as *Uprooted Children: The Early Life of Migrant Farmworkers* (volume 2 of Children in Crisis) (Coles, 1970), *Dark Harvest* (Ashabranner, 1985), and *Macho!*

(Villaseñor, 1991). Books on general themes such as moving (e.g., *Goodbye House* by Frank Asch, 1986) or living in agricultural settings (e.g., *Time to Go* by Beverly Fiday and David Fiday, 1990) can be used to generalize the migrant experience for other students.

Poems, plays, and videos about the migrant experience can also be incorporated into the classroom. Gary Soto, a Mexican American poet and writer, has written several moving poems that vividly depict various aspects of the migrant lifestyle. His poem "A Red Palm" (1990) presents the difficulties migrant workers encounter working in the fields and how such work provides only enough income for basic needs such as food and electricity. Similarly, Tennessee Williams's screenplay, *The Migrants* (Columbia Broadcasting System, 1974), a drama dealing with the experiences of a migrant family, can be read, acted, and discussed in class. A prereading or postreading activity for the book *The Grapes of Wrath* (Steinbeck, 1939) can include the viewing of videos such as *Harvest of Shame* (Murrow, 1960), *New Harvest Old Shame* (Corporation for Public Broadcasting, 1990), and *Legacy of Shame*

Figure 2
Sample poem

Bitter-Sweet Images
by José Salinas

A migrant: overworked, underpaid,
undereducated in search of "Dick
and Jane." A migrant takes pride
in his family; above all, takes pride
in his work: What other choice
does he have.

Long hours go by as we fill our hampers,
one after the other trying to meet our quota
Sweet images of hopes and dreams fill
our heads to give us something to look
forward to: in reality, only to keep us
from getting bored.

The scorching sun in the late afternoon
is but a curse, a curse put upon our
bodies by the evilness of work.
And a gust of wind is but a blessing
from the heavens, a blessing from God: it only
lasts a second or two.

Our tired bones ache from the seemingly
long summer months of hard core, back-
breaking labor. Joy, the last paycheck!
A sign symbolizing the end of work for us
Migrant Farm Workers: a sign symbolizing
future unemployment and despair.

My parents, my dear parents, you are
but too old and too tired for any
further laboring. I will, with
dignity and obligation take care of
you at your old age: when I fail
please forgive me for I am only
a migrant.

Reprinted with the author's permission

(Columbia Broadcasting System, 1995) that depict the economic, social, health, living, and political conditions of migrant workers in the 1960s, 1980s, and 1990s, respectively.

Writing about the migrant experiences

In addition to reading various forms of literature about the migrant experience, teachers can ask their migrant and nonmigrant students to draw pictures and write stories, poems, and plays about their experiences. Albaugh (1990), Hayes, Bahruth, and Kessler (1991), and Atkin (1993) used a process approach to encourage migrant students to write and publish stories and poems that can be read and acted by the class. Josè Salinas, a migrant student who was a freshman in a College Assisted Migrant Program, wrote a poem for an English class assignment that reflected upon his cultural and experiential backgrounds. Based on feedback and encouragement from his teacher, he revised and submitted the poem for a literary contest, where it was awarded first prize (see Figure 2).

Migrant students can share experiences by making written or audiocassette-recorded autobiographical entries. They can also write or draw about such experiences as working in the fields, making new friends, traveling from one place to another, changing schools, and comparing places they have lived. A sample autobiographical entry written by a 12-year-old migrant student whose family travels from South Texas to Ohio to follow the crops is presented in Figure 3. Reflecting on migrant students' powerful voices in their autobiographical entries and their impact on the writers and on others, Hayes et al. (1991) note that

> to know the children's past helps us to know them. All the students had stories, histories, and their survival is chronicled in their words. They wrote about their families and the close relationship they had with their siblings, and they also wrote about their "vacations" following the maturing of the crops from region to region. The autobiographies, the expectations, all lead us to share their lifeways, their rich but difficult experiences in merely surviving. (pp. 133–134)

As migrant students travel with their families, they are exposed to a wide range of learning experiences that introduces them to new people, places, and cultural experiences. Through dialogue journals and penpals, teachers can encourage their migrant students to write about and share their various experiences with others and maintain positive connections with their classmates throughout the school year. The interactive nature of these communications can be facilitated by teaching students to use computers in schools to communicate via electronic mail and electronic bulletin board systems (Copen, 1995).

For students who are unfamiliar with the migrant lifestyle, photographs can provide striking visual images that may evoke efferent and aesthetic responses. For example, the black-and-white photographs of Dorothea Lange (Lange & Taylor, 1993) and Herman Emmet (1989) contrasted with the colorful yet

Figure 3
Sample autobiographical entry

Work

My parents work very hard in the pickles. Sometimes my sister and I go to help my parents. We have seen my parents work many times and just by looking we see it is hard. First you have to wake up at 5:45 a.m. because everyone goes to the field at 6:00 a.m. Picking pickles is like cracking your back. Some people hang the basket in their waste [sic] and some drag it along.

After work, we go home and my mom and dad take a shower and my mom makes a lot of tortillas. Then we take a nap and then we go back (back to the fields) at 6:00 p.m. and do more rows of pickles to get a good start in the morning. My parents sent me to Summer school but my parents needed some help and so I only went to school for 3 weeks because I needed to help my parents. Then when the pickles finished, my mom and dad worked in the tomatoes. When the tomatoes are done my dad works in the sugarbeets. My mom stays home and my sisters and I go to school. My dad goes to work at 5:00 a.m. and comes home at 1:00 a.m. Sometimes, I don't get to see him for up to 4 days. Then when the sugarbeets finish, we go back to Texas and return to Ohio around May 1, and start the season all over again. It's very hard work.

stark images in *Earth Angels* (Buirski, 1994) are reminders that, for some migrants, little has changed in 50 years. These albums by outstanding photojournalists are excellent prewriting prompts for students of all ages.

Addressing the linguistic needs of migrant students

To address the diverse linguistic needs of migrant students, teachers can use bilingual books and materials that depict the migrant experience. Younger students whose primary language is Spanish may enjoy reading *El Camino de Amelia* (Altman, 1993). Intermediate-level students may relate to *Radio Man* (Dorros, 1993) or *Calling the Doves* (Herrera, 1995), which include both English and Spanish text on each page. When listening to a reading of the former book one group of bilingual migrant students had difficulty containing their enthusiasm because they had never seen a book about migrant farmworkers before. In discussing the similarities of the book to their own experiences, they often spoke at once and switched between their two languages to better represent their ideas (Whittaker, 1995).

Younger migrant students may be unable to read either English or Spanish. Therefore, they must depend on their peers, taped texts, or adults. Because many teachers are not bilingual, it is helpful to have parents or other community volunteers read aloud or tape-record in Spanish. Similarly, the fiction of Tomás Rivera (1989, 1992), available in English and Spanish, may appeal to older students.

Insensitivity to the linguistic background and needs of migrant students can have a negative impact on their school performance and self-esteem (Karna & Lara, 1992; Quintero & Huerta-Macías, 1992). Therefore, teachers will need to adapt their instructional techniques to address the learning needs for second-language learners. Maldonado-Colon (1995) notes that teachers can facilitate the school performance of second-language learners by offering nontextualized learning activities that employ thematic and multisensory instruction and also by using physical gestures, movements, visuals, and manipulatives. In addition, educators can adapt instruction for second-language learners by previewing information, highlighting main points, acknowledging students' contributions and attempts to use language, employing frequent comprehension checks, and providing feedback that evaluates the content of responses rather than just correctness of English (Hamayan & Perlman, 1990; Maldonado-Colon, 1995). The ability of second-language learners to respond also can be enhanced if teachers simplify their language by limiting the utterance length, vocabulary complexity, and use of idioms; adjusting the pace; and employing repetitions, concrete examples, modeling, and voice changes.

Educators can create school and classroom environments that encourage students to take risks and attempt to use their first and second languages and that promote an acceptance of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. For example, some schools label areas and objects in the school/classroom in several languages; employ multilingual signs, bulletin boards, and greetings throughout the school; and display books, materials, and students' work in several languages (Foulks, 1991; García & Malkin, 1993; Salend, 1994). Furthermore, teachers must integrate the lived experiences and voices of parents and extended family members into the classroom to help all students interpret and understand the experiences about which they are reading and writing. Such home and school connections promote literacy by encouraging students and their parents, relatives, and friends to bring their cultural, linguistic, and experiential backgrounds to the learning process (Rosenblatt, 1978).

Materials evaluation

Although many resources addressing the migrant lifestyle have good intentions, some may reinforce stereotypic views and present inaccurate information. For example, when the students in Pat's class read *Apple Picking Time* (Slawson, 1994), they loved the description of the children's parents dancing in the apple orchards during lunch time. However, a former migrant worker had no memory of such joviality at noontime since workers were tired and still had hours of strenuous labor ahead (Gutierrez, personal communication, June 1995). On the other hand, a favorite book of some Mexican American students is *Friends From the Other Side* (Anzaldúa, 1993) because many of the illustrations include familiar religious and cultural symbols. Similarly, *Voices From the Fields* (Atkin, 1993), a collection of autobiographies of migrant children

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 4
Criteria for evaluating curriculum materials*

- Are the language and style of the materials appropriate?
- Do the materials present the perspectives and strengths of a diverse group of migrant individuals?
- Are the materials factually correct, realistic, and free of cultural, linguistic, and sexist biases?
- Do the materials depict individuals in a variety of situations and settings and in nonstereotypic ways?
- Are the experiences of and issues important to migrant individuals presented in a realistic manner that allows students to recognize and understand their complexities?
- Do the materials portray individuals as being multidimensional and as having ideas and feelings?
- Do the materials introduce others to similarities and differences that they may have with migrant individuals and the contributions migrant workers make to society?
- Do the visuals facilitate discussion and the sharing of information?
- Will the materials stimulate questions and discussions about the migrant lifestyle?

*Adapted from Dean, Salend, & Taylor, 1993; Garcia & Malkin, 1993; Schniedewind & Davidson, 1983; and Slapin, Lessing, & Belkind, 1987.

and adolescents from California, is well received by migrant students because it is written from an insider's perspective (Cai & Bishop, 1994).

Therefore, when using these materials, teachers will need to counter some of these stereotypes by discussing and critiquing how language, pictures, books, films, television shows, news reports, and common everyday items may create and foster stereotypes and inaccuracies. They will also need to discuss the materials within a historical and cultural context (Derman-Sparks, 1989; Martin, 1987). Criteria for materials evaluation are listed in Figure 4. Because few materials meet all these criteria, educators may want to share these standards with their students and encourage them to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of various resources.

Parental involvement

Teachers can incorporate the voices of migrant families into the classroom by asking students to share their reading and writing assignments with family members and by inviting migrant family members to talk to the class about their experiences or a particular book, poem, photograph, or video addressing the migrant experience. Even though migrant parents are interested in their children's education and sharing their experiences with others, long working hours, child care needs, and language and cultural differences may serve as barriers to establishing traditional parent-teacher communication (Diaz et al., 1989). Educators can attempt to overcome these barriers to parental involvement by (a) making school facilities available for community activities; (b) providing child care and transportation; (c) understanding cross-cultural communication patterns; (d) employing interpreters and translators; (e) scheduling evening or weekend activities; and (f) soliciting the support and assistance of individuals, groups, and agencies from the family's community (Salend & Taylor, 1993).

Summary

Migrant farmworkers are vitally important members of society. Incorporating resources that give voice to migrant children and their families is a powerful way of validating their significant contributions to the communities in which they reside. All children, regardless of their cultural, linguistic, and experiential background, can respond to and be inspired by the hope, despair, love, disappointment, and determination these texts and images evoke. As Cai and Bishop (1994) remind us, "Voices from the heart, once heard, can change other hearts" (p. 68).

Authors' note

The authors wish to express their appreciation to Pat Rust and her fourth-grade class at Kennedy Elementary School, Kingston, New York, USA, and the children of the Mid-Hudson Migrant Education Summer Program.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Whittaker and Salend, both formerly special education teachers, now work at the Migrant/Special Education Program, a U.S. federally funded project. Gutierrez currently teaches a third/fourth-grade bilingual class in Lorain, Ohio, USA, where she is the parental involvement coordinator for the Ohio Migrant Education Center. Whittaker may be contacted at the Department of Educational Studies, State University of New York at New Paltz, Old Main Building, 112, New Paltz, NY 12561, USA.

References

Albaugh, R. (1990). *Hands on: The day the crops failed.* Homestead, FL: Dade County Migrant Project.

Baca, L., & Harris, K.C. (1988). Teaching migrant exceptional students. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 20,* 32 – 35.

Cai, M., & Bishop, R.S. (1994). Multicultural literature for children: Towards a clarification of the concept. In A.H. Dyson & C. Genishi (Eds.), *The need for story: Cultural diversity in the classroom and community* (pp. 57 – 71). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Coballes-Vega, C., & Salend, S.J. (1988). Guidelines for assessing migrant handicapped students. *Diagnostique, 13,* 64 – 75.

Copen, P. (1995). Connecting classrooms through telecommunications. *Educational Leadership, 53*(2), 44 – 47.

Dean, A.V., Salend, S.J., & Taylor, L. (1993). Multicultural education: A challenge for special educators. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 26,* 40 – 43.

Derman-Sparks, L. (1989). *Anti-bias curriculum.* Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Diaz, J., Trotter, R., & Rivera, V. (1989). *The effects of migration on children: An ethnographic study.* Harrisburg, PA: Pennsylvania Department of Education, Division on Migrant Education.

Egan-Robertson, A. (1993). Puerto Rican students respond to children's books with Puerto Rican themes. In K.E. Holland, R.A. Hungerford, & S.B. Ernst (Eds.), *Journeying: Children responding to literature* (pp. 204 – 218). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Foulks, B. (1991, November). *Promoting multicultural acceptance within the elementary classroom.* Paper presented at the meeting of the New York Federation of Chapters of the Council for Exceptional Children, Buffalo, NY.

Garcia, S.B., & Malkin, D.H. (1993). Toward defining programs and services for culturally and linguistically diverse learners in special education. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 26,* 52 – 58.

Gutierrez, M. (1994, April). *Meeting the needs of bilingual migrant students.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the New York State Chapter of the Association for Bilingual Education, Uniondale, NY.

Hamayan, E.V., & Perlman, R. (1990). *Helping language minority students after they exit from bilingual/ESL programs: A handbook.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Hayes, C.W., Bahruth, R., & Kessler, C. (1991). *Literacy con carino.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Holland, K.E., Hungerford, R.A., & Ernst, S.B. (1993). *Journeying: Children responding to literature.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Interstate Migrant Education Council. (1992). *Migrant education policy brief: Special education.* Denver, CO: Author.

Karna, H.T., & Lara, M. (1992). The support factor as empowerment and teachers' perceptions of bilingual programs. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 11,* 187 – 206.

Maldonado-Colon, E. (1995, April). *Second language learners in special education: A language framework for inclusive classrooms.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Council for Exceptional Children, Indianapolis, IN.

Martin, D.S. (1987). Reducing ethnocentrism. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 20,* 5 – 8.

National Commission on Migrant Education. (1992). *Invisible children: A portrait of migrant education in the United States.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Norton, D.E. (1990). Teaching multicultural literature in the reading curriculum. *The Reading Teacher, 44,* 28 – 40.

Quintero, E., & Huerta-Macias, A. (1992). Learning together: Issues for language minority parents and their children. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 10,* 41 – 56.

Research Triangle Institute. (1992). *Descriptive study of Chapter 1 migrant education program.* Research Triangle Park, NC: Author.

Rosenblatt, L.M. (1938). *Literature as exploration.* New York: Noble & Noble.

Rosenblatt, L.M. (1978). *The reader, the text, and the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Rosenblatt, L.M. (1982). The literacy transaction: Evocation and response. *Theory into Practice, 21,* 268 – 277.

Salend, S.J. (1994). *Effective mainstreaming: Creating inclusive classrooms.* New York: Macmillan.

Salend, S.J., & Taylor, L.S. (1993). Working with families: A cross-cultural perspective. *Remedial and Special Education, 14*(5), 25 – 32.

Sawyer, W. (1987). Literature and literacy: A review of research. *Language Arts, 64,* 33 – 39.

Schniedewind, N., & Davidson, E. (1983). *Open minds to equality: A sourcebook of learning activities to promote race, sex, class, and age equity.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Sims, R. (1982). *Shadow and substance: Afro-American experience in contemporary children's fiction.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Slapin, B., Lessing, J., & Belkind, E. (1987). *Books without bias: A guide to evaluating children's literature for handicapism.* Berkeley, CA: KIDS Project.

United States General Accounting Office. (1992). *Hired farmworkers: Health and well-being at risk.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

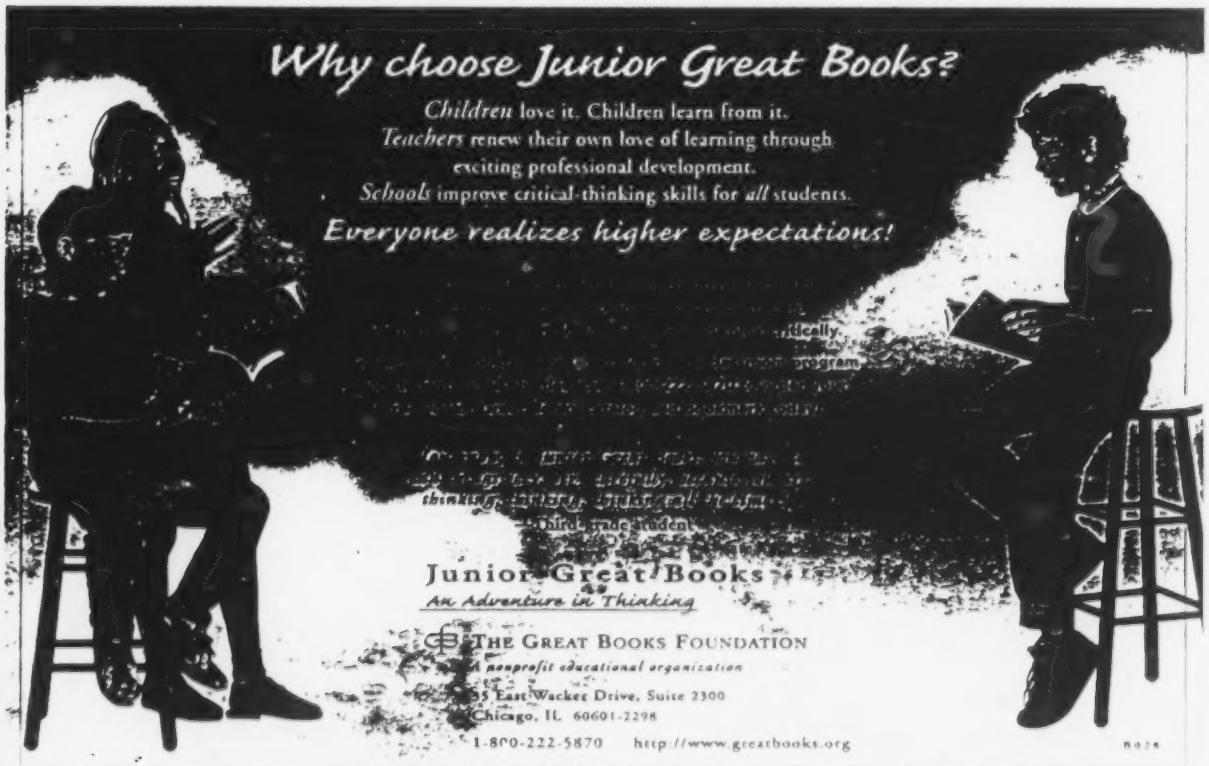
Weaver, C. (1994). *Reading process and practice: From socio-psycholinguistics to whole language* (2nd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Whittaker, C.R. (1995). *Fieldnotes from mid-Hudson migrant education summer program.* Unpublished raw data.

Resources cited

Altman, L.J. (1993). *El camino de Amelia.* New York: Lee & Low.

Anzaldúa, G. (1993). *Friends from the other side: Amigos del otro lado.* San Francisco, CA: Children's Book Press.
Asch, F. (1986). *Goodbye house.* New York: Bantam Doubleday Dell.
Ashabranner, B. (1985). *Dark harvest: Migrant farmworkers in America.* New York: Dodd, Mead.
Atkin, S.B. (1993). *Voices from the fields: Children of migrant farmworkers tell their stories.* Boston: Little, Brown.
Brimmer, L.D. (1992). *A migrant family.* Minneapolis, MN: Lerner.
Buirski, N. (1994). *Earth angels.* San Francisco: Pomegranate Art Book.
Coles, R. (1970). *Uprooted children: The early life of migrant farm workers.* Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
Columbia Broadcasting System. (1974). *The migrants.* New York: Author.
Columbia Broadcasting System. (1995). *Legacy of shame.* New York: Author.
Corporation for Public Broadcasting. (1990). *New harvest old shame.* Alexandria, VA: Author.
DeRuiz, D.C., & Larios, R. (1993). *La Causa: The migrant farmworkers' story.* New York: Steck-Vaughn.
Dorros, A. (1993). *Radio man.* New York: HarperCollins.
Emmet, H.L. (1989). *Fruit tramps: A family of migrant workers.* Albuquerque, NM: University of New Mexico Press.
Fiday, B., & Fiday, D. (1990). *Time to go.* New York: Harcourt Brace.
Gates, D. (1940). *Blue willow.* New York: Viking.
Herrera, J.F. (1995). *Calling the doves: El canto de las palomas.* Emeryville, CA: Children's Book Press.
Hinojosa, R. (1987). *The migrant earth.* Houston, TX: Arte Publico.
Lange, D., & Taylor, P.S. (1993). *An American exodus: A record of human erosion in the thirties.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
Murrow, E.R. (1960). *Harvest of shame.* New York: McGraw Hill Films.
Patterson, K.A. (1991). *The smallest cow in the world.* New York: Viking.
Rivera, T. (1989). *The harvest.* Houston, TX: Arte Publico.
Rivera, T. (1992). *...y no se lo trago la tierra.* Houston, TX: Arte Publico.
Shotwell, L. (1963). *Roosevelt Grady.* Cleveland, OH: World.
Slawson, M.B. (1994). *Apple picking time.* New York: Crown.
Snyder, Z.K. (1965). *The velvet room.* New York: Dell.
Soto, G. (1990). *Who will know us? New poems by Gary Soto.* San Francisco: Chronicle Books.
Stanley, J. (1992). *Children of the dust bowl: The true story of school at Weedpatch Camp.* New York: Crown.
Steinbeck, J. (1939). *The grapes of wrath.* New York: Viking.
Steinbeck, J. (1988). *The harvest gypsies: On the road to the grapes of wrath.* Berkeley, CA: Heyday Books.
Thomas, J.R. (1994). *Lights on the river.* New York: Hyperion.
Villaseñor, V. (1991). *Macho!* Houston, TX: Arte Publico.
Wallace-Brodeur, R. (1988). *The godmother tree.* New York: HarperCollins.
Wilkinson, A. (1989). *Big sugar: Seasons in the cane fields of Florida.* New York: Knopf.
Williams, S.A. (1992). *Working cotton.* New York: Harcourt Brace.


Why choose Junior Great Books?
Children love it. Children learn from it.
Teachers renew their own love of learning through exciting professional development.
Schools improve critical-thinking skills for all students.
Everyone realizes higher expectations!
Junior Great Books
An Adventure in Thinking
The Great Books Foundation
A nonprofit educational organization
Chicago, IL 60601-2298
1-800-222-5870
http://www.greatbooks.org

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Elementary ESOL Education News

The Official Publication of the English to Speakers of Other Languages in Elementary Education Special Interest Section

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

SUMMER 1990 EDITOR: CAROLINE LINSE VOL. 13 NO. 1

Printed by permisson of the Elementary Education Interest Section of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages)

Oral Language Development—Common Sense Strategies for Second Language Learners in the Primary Grades

by Christine Sutton

Scene: A fall morning on an elementary school playground. A young girl runs up to show her teacher a clump of flowering weeds that she has just pulled from the edge of the grounds.

Daisy: Look, teacher.... for you.

Teacher: Oh, Daisy, they're beautiful. (Pointing to the small flowers) Do you know, these flowers are called daisy... just like you. (The *did* look like very small daisies.)

Daisy: (After thinking for some time, points to each flower in the clump.) This one is Daisy, one is Narrong, this one Minh Thu.

The Unfamiliar World Called "School"

My class of kindergarteners began school last fall with very limited English proficiency; at least, that's what the oral language tests revealed. However, they entered school obviously eager to explore and discover. For all but a couple of them, school was a brand-new experience; for most, it was their first time away from family and from the comfort of their native language environment.

For young, non-English speaking children, school can be a series of frustrating, even terrifying, experiences. They don't understand what's going on, what the teacher or their classmates are saying, or what they're supposed to do. What appears to be a goldmine of toys, gadgets and material goodies seems to come with an endless set of incomprehensible restrictions regarding their use ("It's not time to look at the books," "Only four children in the house corner," "now it's time to listen"). Young children often show their feelings of frustration and fear more directly than older children do in the same setting. They cry, they fidget and wiggle, they hit each other — communicating physically what they cannot put into words.

How, then, does a teacher create a setting which allows children to overcome their fears, explore their new surroundings without doing in their classmates, and get on with the business of learning? In short, how do we enable the Daisies to bloom?

Making School a Place for Language Acquisition

For me, there are three basic guides to establishing an environment in which children flourish and develop their abilities to express themselves:

1) The classroom is one in which there is a great deal of warmth, love and respect. The teacher genuinely enjoys being with children, talking with them, hearing what they have to say. The children become part of a caring "family."
2) The classroom is a rich source of experiences that children can enter into with relish. We know that children develop language through highly contextualized, concrete experiences (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982). A rich language environment, then, presumes a wealth of interesting things *to do*.
3) The classroom is a place where language is the means to some purposeful end, not the end in and of itself. Although language development may be a primary focus in the mind of the teacher, it is not the obvious focus for the students.

Establish a Warm, Caring Environment

Transforming a classroom into a homey place can be a challenge. Cement block walls, desks, chairs, and grungy venetian blinds do not look very inviting. A storage closet or makeshift instructional space in the corner of a gym are even less so. However, several practices can help to soften the institutional look and create a more welcoming place.

- Use colorful, inviting decorations, pictures, posters, and materials arranged at children's eye level and within their reach.
- Include familiar, comforting objects. I had one student who insisted on holding a stuffed bear each day as he worked. A comfortable cushion can provide a place to relax with a book or a friend.
- Define spaces where children can work with one another—a reading corner, a listening center, a house area.
- Display children's projects and work.

continued on page 2

- Arrange furniture and materials to encourage collaboration and interaction among students. For example, group desks/chairs in conversational work clusters.

For a detailed discussion of effective ways to organize a classroom to promote oral language, see "Yes, Talking!" (Enright and McCloskey, 1985).

Foster the Feeling of Family

- Provide evidence of your being a real person. (Remember when you first discovered that your teachers didn't live at school?) Keep a photo album at school, participate in "show and tell" time, talk about what you do over the weekend, just as the children do.
- Spend time with each child individually. It might be only a few minutes each day or every other day, but it establishedsa bond of trust and allows you to get to know your students. Sharing a book, working a puzzle with a student, blowing bubbles, looking at rocks on the playground, finishing up a special art project are examples of the types of activities that parents share with children when they spend time together.
- Make an effort to include activities, objects and approaches to tasks which are culturally familiar to the students. For example, snack time can include rice cakes, enchiladas and ramen noodle soup as well as peanut butter, popcorn and pizza. Stories, games and pictures should reflect the children's diverse backgrounds as well as the U.S. culture they are trying to learn. Cooperative hands-on tasks may be more familiar than independent seatwork.

Provide Interesting, Engaging Activities

Once children are involved in "doing," the language which envelops the activity makes sense and flows more naturally. In this regard, kindergarten is the perfect place for children to acquire a new language because so much of what occurs in hands-on. Unfortunately, once students reach first grade, they lose many of these opportunities to use language concretely in context. We must then create situations for children to count with a purpose, to work with actual objects and materials instead of abstract facsimilies, to learn and express themselves through play. Acting out the "Three Billy Goats Gruff," dressing up, using puppets and building with blocks create meaningful contexts for children to talk with one another. Similarly, when older students collaborate on projects, problem-solve together, or conference with one another about their work, communication is a necessary ingredient.

Language is a means to an end. When we think about the ways oral language plays a role in our daily lives, it is evident that there are many important and varied uses:

- Giving and asking for information.
- Expressing feelings or wishes.
- Cajoling.
- Negotiating.
- Clarifying.
- Organizing our thoughts, our schedules, our plans.
- Chatting with friends.
- Listening for relaxation and enjoyment.

Rarely, if ever, do we focus on language for its own sake. Rather, language is the tool which permits us to accomplish other goals, to bring meaning to a given context. We have recognized for some time now that children develop their language capabilities by using language for meaningful communication. And yet we seem to have difficulty letting go of the urge to have students practice the past tense in isolation, asking questions in cases where the answers are evident to all, or sit under the table in order to elicit a particular part of speech.

Capitalize on Situations Where Language Occurs Naturally

In order to help children develop their ability to use language effectively, create or take advantage of situations where the language takes place naturally and realistically.

- Structure activities that generate communication. It is amazing what three pairs of scissors, a bottle of glue and three tracing patterns at a table of six children produces in the way of language usage. It also provides an excellent opportunity to reinforce manners and non-violence as tools of negotiation. Very simple activities that are new to the students will produce questions and comments because the children genuinely want to know about what's happening. I recently took a small group of students to the teacher workroom to photocopy their hands. There was an inevitable flood of questions:

  "How does it do that?"
  "Can I keep it?"
  "Can I take one for my sister?"

- Seize teachable moments. If it is snowing, try to capture some flakes to examine and then make paper snowflakes. If it is foggy, go outside and *feel* the fog—otherwise, the phenomenon is a difficult one to pin down in words. Using teachable moments is the classroom equivalent of the here-and-now approach that adults use with very young children acquiring their first language. "Oh, look, there goes a fire truck." "Do you want more juice?"
- Enjoy the many oral traditions of this culture and of the cultures of your students. Games, jump rope rhymes, stories, songs, riddles and jokes play an important role in the development of young children within a specific cultural context. Share these traditions with your students and invite others to share theirs through in-class visitors, field trips, movies, books and music.
- Provide learning experiences which elicit honest, natural communication. Asking a child her favorite color is a legitimate question; asking her the color of her shoes is not. Explaining how to complete an art project while demonstrating the various steps will help children comprehend both the language and the task at hand. Requiring a child to answer the question, "What day is it?" with a complete sentence may be counter-productive if the response is unnatural.

In summary, children blossom, their talents emerge and their ability to express themselves grows strong when they have the opportunity to participate actively in a caring environment that offers varied and inviting activities. Our challenge as teachers is to create such an environment for our young friends. Keeping three common-sense strategies in mind will help make our task easier. Create a warm, friendly environment; plan many interesting, hands-on activities, build in opportunities for students to communicate meaningfully with you and with their classmates.

REFERENCES

Dulay, Heidi, Marina Burt, and Stephen Krashen. 1982. *Language Two*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Enright, D. Scott and Mary Lou McCloskey. 1985. "Yes, Talking!: Organizing the Classroom to Promote Second Language Acquisition." *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(3), 431-453.

ERIC®
CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Digest

May 1995

We Can Talk: Cooperative Learning in the Elementary ESL Classroom (EDO-FL-95-08)

Spencer Kagan, Kagan Cooperative Learning

Language acquisition is determined by a complex interaction of a number of critical input, output, and context variables. An examination of these critical variables reveals cooperative learning has a dramatic positive impact on almost all of the variables critical to language acquisition.

Input

Language acquisition is fostered by input that is comprehensible, developmentally appropriate, redundant, and accurate.

Comprehensible. To facilitate language acquisition, input must be comprehended (Krashen, 1982). Students working in cooperative groups need to make themselves understood, so they naturally adjust their input to make it comprehensible. The small group setting allows a far higher proportion of comprehensible input, because the speaker has the luxury of adjusting speech to the level appropriate to the listener to negotiate meaning—luxury not available to the teacher speaking to a whole class. The speakers can check for understanding and adjust the level of speech easily when speaking to one another, something not easily done when speaking in a large group. Input in the cooperative setting is made comprehensible also because it is often linked to specific, concrete behaviors or manipulatives.

Developmentally Appropriate. Even if language is comprehended it will not stimulate the next step in language acquisition if it is not in the *zone of proximal development* (Vygotsy, 1978). The developmental level of any student is what he or she can do alone; the proximal level is what he/she can do with supportive collaboration. The difference between the developmental and proximal levels is called the zone of proximal development. The nature of a cooperative group focuses input in the zone of proximal development, stimulating development to the next stage of language development.

Redundant. A student may receive comprehensible input in the zone of proximal development, but that will not ensure language acquisition unless the input is received repeatedly from a variety of sources. The cooperative learning group is a natural source of redundant communication. As the students in a small group discuss a topic, they each use a variety of phrases providing the opportunity for the listener to triangulate in on meaning as well as receiving the repeated input necessary for learning to move from short-term comprehension to long-term acquisition.

Accurate. Accurate input—communication that is grammatically correct with proper word choice and pronunciation—facilitates language acquisition. In this area, the traditional classroom may have an advantage over the cooperative classroom, because the teacher is the source of most speech. Peer output is less accurate than teacher output, but accuracy in the traditional classroom is purchased by preventing student output, a price far too high for what it purchases. Frequent communicative output produces speech acquisition far more readily than formal accurate input.

Output

Language acquisition is fostered by output that is functional and communicative (Swain, 1985), frequent, redundant, and consistent with the identity of the speaker.

Functional/Communicative. If speech is not representative of the way a speaker will use the language in everyday settings, it will add little to the speaker's actual communicative competence. Memorization of vocabulary lists or verb conjugations does not increase fluency, because learning about a language is quite different from acquiring the language. Display behavior such as, "The clock is on the wall," or "This is a glass," is not representative of actual speech, and practice of formal, decontextualized speech creates transference problems that hinder acquisition. The cooperative group provides the arena for expressive, functional, personally relevant, representative language output that is critical for language acquisition.

Frequent. Students to a large extent learn to speak by speaking. The single greatest advantage of cooperative learning over traditional classroom organization for the acquisition of language is the amount of language output allowed per student. In the traditional classroom, students are called upon one at a time. During this whole-class question-answer time, the teacher actually does more talking than the students, because the teacher must talk twice for each time a student talks: first asking the question and then providing feedback in the form of praise, comment, or correction opportunity. Thus, in a classroom of 30, to provide each student one minute of output opportunity takes over an hour. In contrast, to provide each student one minute if the students are in a pair-discussion takes little over two minutes. In the cooperative setting, with regard to language output, we can do in two minutes what takes an hour to do in the traditional classroom!

Redundant. Students become fluent if they have the opportunity to speak repeatedly on the same topic. Many cooperative learning structures, such as *Three Pair Share* and *Inside/Outside Circle* are explicitly designed to provide redundancy of output opportunities. Even informal, cooperative learning discussion provides redundancy as students discuss a topic with each of their teammates. There is not enough time in the traditional classroom to call on each student to talk more than once on a topic.

Identity Congruent. Practicing classroom speech that is not consistent with a student's identity will not lead to later fluency, because the student will not want to project the identity associated with that speech. Cultural groups will resist acquisition of the dominant language if the very use of that language signals assimilation that is being resisted. The less formal, peer-oriented, expressive use of language in the cooperative group represents language use closer to the identity of many students than the formal use of language practiced in whole-class settings. The more identity-congruent language facilitates language acquisition.

Context

Language acquisition is fostered if it occurs in a context that is supportive and motivating, communicative and referential, developmentally appropriate, and feedback rich.

Supportive/Motivating. The traditional classroom is far from supportive as students are "right" or "wrong" as they are called upon to answer questions before the whole class. Students in a cooperative group are more motivated to speak and feel greater support for a variety of reasons: (1) They are more frequently asked questions; (2) they need to communicate to accomplish the cooperative learning projects; (3) peers are far more supportive than in the traditional classroom because they are all on the same side; (4) cooperative learning structures demand speech; (5) students are taught to praise and encourage each other; and (6) students are made interdependent so they need to know what the others know. Because of these factors, students "bring out" their teammates, providing words or phrases to make speech inviting and easy. Cooperative learning provides a supportive, motivating context for speech to emerge.

Communicative/Referential. In cooperative learning groups, we communicate over things we are making. We speak in real time, about real events and objects, to accomplish real goals. We negotiate meaning. Our communication that is functional refers to what is happening in the moment. This communicative language facilitates language acquisition, and it is quite in contrast to the abstract "talking about" topics that often characterize whole-class speech.

Developmentally Appropriate. Some students are not ready to give a speech to a whole class but are quite at ease talking to one, two, or even three others. Speech to a whole class is often formal and less contextualized than speech within a cooperative group. It is easy to ask for a crayon from a friendly peer; it is hard to speak before the whole class in answering a question or speaking on an assigned topic. Speakers within a small group have more opportunities to enter discourse at the level appropriate to their own development.

Feedback Rich. Students talk to each other, providing immediate feedback and correction opportunities. Feedback and correction in the process of communication ("Give me that, "Sure, you take the ruler," etc.) leads to easy acquisition of vocabulary and language forms, whereas formal correction opportunities ("What is this?" "This is a ruler," etc.) lead to self-consciousness and anxiety, which inhibit rather than facilitate language acquisition.

In 20 minutes of whole-class, one-at-a-time interaction, a student is lucky to get one feedback opportunity; in the same 20 minutes of cooperative interaction, the student might receive half a dozen feedback opportunities—all in a natural context easy to assimilate.

A Natural Marriage

As we examine how cooperative learning transforms input, output, and context variables in the direction of facilitating language acquisition, we conclude: Cooperative learning and the ESL classroom—a natural marriage.

This Digest is reprinted from *Elementary Education Newsletter* (vol. 17, no. 2, Winter 1995), the official publication of the ESOL in Elementary Education Interest Section of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

References

Krashen, S.D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Oxford, England: Pergamon.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input in its development. In S.M. Gass, & C.G. Madden, (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-53). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds. & Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Resources

Holt, D. D. (Ed.). (1993). *Cooperative learning: A response to linguistic and cultural diversity. Language in education: Theory and practice 81.* McHenry, IL and Washington, DC: Delta Systems and Center for Applied Linguistics.

Kagan Cooperative Learning
27134 Paseo Espada, Suite 303,
San Juan Capistrano, CA 92675
Phone: 800-933-2667• Fax: 714-248-7680

••••••••••••

This report was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Dept. of Education, under contract no. RR93002010. The opinions expressed do not necessarily represent the positions or policies of OERI or ED.

Inviting Children to Make Connections Between Reading and Writing

Katharine Davies Samway and Dorothy Taylor

Sometimes we are fortunate to be in the right place at the right time to hear children spontaneously share insights into their literacy process.

Not long ago, Homa, an eighth grader, explained in her reading dialogue journal how reading and writing can influence each other:

> I . . . don't think that it matters if a book is a mystery or not for the auther to make you ask questions from your self. I think most of the books I've read make me ask questions from myself in the beginning and I have written stories that make the readers of them ask questions and I can start another one that way too!!

Homa's remark reveals the way in which she was conscious of how writers craft their stories—and how her reading influenced her writing. Professional writers often talk about how their writing is influenced by what they read. Homa's comments show that children who are developing readers and writers and second language learners like herself can make and express connections between their reading and writing.

Sometimes we are fortunate to be in the right place at the right time to hear children spontaneously share insights into their literacy process. As teachers, we have made inferences about how children's reading has influenced what or how they wrote (e.g., "I saw her reading *Tuck Everlasting* [Babbit, 1975] last week, and this story of hers reminds me of it. I bet she modeled it after *Tuck Everlasting*."). We realize, however, that we cannot rely solely on our hunches. We need to talk directly with students about these issues in order to better understand them as learners. We have, therefore, interviewed students to find out how their reading influences their writing. Some of these interviews were face-to-face interviews with Taylor, and others were telephone interviews with Samway.

In many ways, literature studies serve the same purpose as writing conferences—they give students and teachers an opportunity to explore texts collaboratively.

The Children and Their ESOL Classes

We will describe some connections that three nonnative-English-speaking middle school children related when asked to comment on how their reading influenced their writing. Eduardo (sixth grade), Homa (eighth grade), and Shanti (eighth grade, special

Reprinted by permission of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and authors K. Davies Samway and Dorothy Taylor.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Through their reading, these young authors became acutely aware of the need for strategies to "hook" readers and spontaneously experimented with devices such as dialogue for accomplishing that.

education placement) live in a suburban neighborhood in Massachusetts. Their native languages are Spanish, Farsi, and Hindi respectively. They attend an ESOL pull-out class two to three times a week, each class lasting for approximately 50 minutes. In these classes they write on self-selected topics and confer with their peers and teacher about their writing. They correspond with Taylor, their ESOL teacher, in a reading dialogue journal in which they reflect upon the books they are reading out of class. They also correspond with Samway in letters about their writing processes. In other words, the students have multiple opportunities to be thoughtful readers and writers. As teachers, we are interested in what we can do to enhance this kind of reflectiveness. That is, we believe that it is important to explore classroom learning events that are conducive to thoughtful learning. In the final section of this paper, we will discuss in more detail how the events in their ESOL classes contributed to the children's ability to see and talk about connections between their reading and writing.

Connections the Children Made

When the children talked about how books they read had influenced their writing, we learned a great deal about them. Sometimes our hunches were confirmed, but more often we were given access to new information about the writing processes of these young writers. They talked about how the content of their stories, the vocabulary, and the mechanical features they used had often been influenced by what they had read. But mostly they talked about how particular literary features that they had encountered in the books they read—genre, leads, and plausibility—had influenced their writing. In doing so, they demonstrated an analytical awareness of what one can do or cannot do as a writer.

Genre

Most of the children's writing consisted of personal narrative or third-person fictionalized prose. However, they experimented within their chosen genre. For example, Eduardo had read and been very impressed by O. Henry stories with their twists at the end. When Taylor asked him what he liked about the stories, Eduardo responded:

> It was interesting ... because you always think, in the end, the opposite thing you think is going to happen ... happens. It's always weird.

After writing a story about a soccer tournament, Eduardo commented that he deliberately tried to have an unexpected ending. The story describes how his team was winning 3-0 at half-time; in the second half it started to rain, the score was tied, mothers came to collect their children, and the narrator's team was reduced to half its size. The narrator's mother also picked him up before the end of the game and was very angry that he got so wet, exposing himself to the possibility of sickness. He did get sick, and when he was well again, he returned to his team. Eduardo ended his story in this way:

> When I was okay I went to practice with my team. I asked them, "Who won?" They answered, "They did—ten to three. You are out of the team for a season for not staying the whole game." "Come on", I said, but they told me, "Get out of here, and never ask if you can come to practice, or be on the team. WIMP!!!"
>
> I waited a whole year so I could play again with the team. Now they aren't angry with me anymore.

Although the ending seemed a bit implausible at first reading, it was unexpected.

Eduardo waited eagerly for him to return the book to the bookshelf so that he could read it. Knowledge often circled the room this way in a kind of domino effect.

Eduardo impressed us with the way in which he built up the suspense. He commented on how he enjoyed stories with surprise endings, and went on to reflect on how O. Henry stories had influenced him as a writer:

Eduardo: Like, when I write a story from O. Henry.

Teacher: Are you thinking specifically of "A Soccer Tournament"? That O. Henry has influenced your writing in "A Soccer Tournament"?

Eduardo: Yeah, because we were playing super okay and then it started to rain and we lost.

Teacher: Okay, so you started out with one idea and you put some kind of twist on it?

Eduardo: I tried to.

Eduardo had been inspired by O. Henry stories to try something he had encountered in them—an unexpected ending.

The children read fairy tales and sometimes used this genre as a model. For example, after reading Cinderella stories, Shanti wrote a story about Madonna becoming Michael Jackson's wife. Her story began:

> When Madonna was eight years old her father died. Then her mother got married with another man because her mother wanted Madonna to have a father and sister and brother. But when Madonna got older her stepfather and her stepsister and stepbrother didn't like her because she was so beautiful. And her stepbrother and stepsister were so ugly and mean to her. They never let Madonna go

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

anywhere. But one time her step-brother and stepsister went to the park, and Madonna said, "Can I go with you." They said, "No, you can't go with us." She said, "Only one time, then I won't go anywhere else." They said, "O.K., we will let you go with us only one time. Then you can't go anywhere else." She said, "O.K."

In the story, Shanti went on to describe how Madonna meets Michael Jackson in the park. He asks her to marry him, but her stepfather is furious with her because he wants his own daughter to marry the rich and famous Michael Jackson. He forbids the marriage. Madonna is made to return to her life of drudgery, hard work, and ugly clothes. That night Michael Jackson comes to their house, recognizes Madonna, and says he wants to marry her. The stepfather calls the police because Michael Jackson will not accept that he cannot marry Madonna and will not leave. The police eventually take the stepfather to jail and Madonna and Michael Jackson marry ... and live happily ever after.

Later in the year, Shanti talked about the influence of the Cinderella stories on her *Madonna* story:

Teacher: What about in *Madonna*, how did the Cinderella stories that you read influence your writing of the Madonna story?

Shanti: Well, like, same thing happen in Cinderella, like the stepsister or stepfather, stepmother, they always treat her like in, not kind way, but they always tell her to do work and Madonna book doesn't take her anywhere until she just said, "Let me, can you take me one time to park and then I won't go anywhere?" And they say, "Yes." And in Cinderella story, this one happen. The fairy godmother helped her.

As this short excerpt shows, Shanti borrowed both characters and themes (evil being punished and rejection) from the Cinderella stories.

The children often talked about their readings and themes with their peers and ESOL teacher, and in these discussions they explored special, interesting elements of the genre. Later, they sometimes incorporated those elements into their own writing. In this way, they often transformed personal narratives into fictionalized stories utilizing genre features that appealed to them.

Leads

Through reading, Homa learned how essential it is for authors to begin their stories with a powerful, captivating lead. She was acutely aware of the difficulties for a reader if the beginning is labored and tedious, and she was determined not to do this in her own writing. In her reading dialogue journal Homa wrote:

> I think there would be a way for the author of the book to describe the characters of the book without making the book boring. Sometimes in some books the author doesn't even have to describe what the characters are like because the reader will find out what they're like by the things the character does in the book. Do you know what I mean?" In the short stories I write I don't really describe what the people are like in it because I think maybe that's for the reader to decide.... In the beginning of the books I pay attention to what kind of writing that is ... sometimes I try to use that kind of writing.

When she read and wrote, Homa critically analyzed the craft of writing. She was aware of how other authors write and used that knowledge to enhance her own writing. For example, she commented that she had noticed that beginning a story with dialogue can be a very effective way of capturing one's audience and began one of her stories, *Bad News*, in the same way:

> "You know who just called?" Mom asked.
> "I don't know. Who?" I answered.
> "Just take a wild guess." Mom replied.
> "I don't know. Did Grandma call or something?" I asked, not too interested.
> "No but you say you were at the library doing your homework after school?" Mom questioned.

This story was about an occasion when the narrator deceived her mother and her mother found out. Later in the story, she was caught up in self-pity and was sulking in her parents' room because they had bad news for her. She was sure that the bad news concerned her punishment, but instead discovered that her great grandfather had died. It is a contemporary story, one in which dialogue in the form of telephone calls built up suspense, a skillful device for developing the plot.

Authors do not have long to capture their audiences. Through their reading, these young authors became acutely aware of the need for strategies to "hook" readers and spontaneously experimented with devices such as dialogue for accomplishing that.

Plausibility

The children read a lot of fiction and were constantly confronted by issues of plausibility, in the books they read and in the stories that they wrote. For example, Eduardo read and enjoyed Aesop's Fables. Later, he wrote his own fables, including this one:

> The bat and the rabbits
>
> Help, help!" exclaimed a rabbit. When his mother was talking to another rabbit. "Oh, someone is kidnaping my son, if I wouldn't have left him there all alone." cried the rabbits mother.
> The other day all the rabbits knew what had happened. The next day the ugly bat kidnaper asked for 1,000,000 carrots. But the parents of the rabbit didn't have that much of carrots so they asked for them to another rabbits. Finally the rabbit's family got that amount of carrots and they left it where the bat told them to.

The bat didn't give the rabbit back, but he said he will give it back at night.

"It is almost night, we will get him back," said the mother.

At night when the rabbit was supposse to be home, someone put something between the two leaves infront of the burrolw.

The mother took the leaves out very carefully and she fainted because it was her son ear.

The bat did this many times but when the tigers caught him they killed the ugly bat.

IF YOU KILL WITHOUT ANY REASON YOU HAVE TO FEEL WHAT DYE IS LIKE.

In an earlier draft, the ransom had involved money. Eduardo and his ESOL teacher had talked about whether this was plausible, even in a fable, and he returned to the fables he had read to explore the issue further. Later, he said:

> You told me that I used to put too many characteristics of persons in the animals. Now I put some, but not as much as ... like they go bowling or have money.... I said instead of money, one million carrots.

Sometimes our hunches were confirmed, but more often we were given access to new information about the writing processes of these young writers.

Eduardo's writing and comments reflected his understanding that authors have considerable license, but that there are bounds.

Learning to Make Connections

Talking about one's own literacy processes and development is not an easy task, particularly if one has not had many opportunities to practice the skill. This is especially true for nonnative English speakers who generally have fewer opportunities to engage in this type of reflective activity. In their ESOL class, Homa, Shanti, and Eduardo were offered many opportunities to be thoughtful readers and writers. What follows is a description of some of the ESOL classroom activities and an explanation of how they may have contributed to the children's developing powers of reflection.

Self-Selection of Reading Materials and Writing Topics

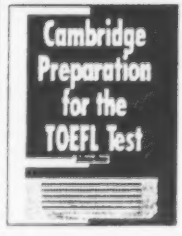
Homa loved mysteries, Eduardo admired the irony of the O. Henry twist, and Shanti preferred a happy fairy tale ending. In their interviews, each of these students connected a reading preference to a writing style that they had admired and modeled. In their ESOL class, the students were encouraged to read and write extensively on self-selected topics. Teachers and peers were sources for book and topic ideas, but the final responsibility for selection was up to the individual student. Thus, students quickly developed areas of special interest and expertise and applied this knowledge to their writing (e.g., Homa's recognition and use of dialogue as a way to make a captivating lead stemmed from her interest in suspense and mysteries).

Students learned quickly to look to one another as sources of ideas for books to read or topics to write about. Eduardo's interest in O. Henry was sparked when another student, Mikhail, excitedly pulled the collection of O. Henry stories off the shelf and exclaimed that he had read many of these stories in Russian. Eduardo waited eagerly for him to return the book to the bookshelf so that *he* could read it. Knowledge often circled the room this way in a kind of domino effect.

Peer and Teacher Writing Conferences

Students read their pieces of writing in peer and teacher conferences and were encouraged to provide thoughtful criticism. (For a more detailed description of this approach to writing instruction [writer's workshop], see Atwell, 1987; Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983; Samway, 1992; and Urzua, 1987.) It was during a writing conference that Eduardo talked about the issue of plausibility in his story, *The bat and the rabbits*. Eduardo immediately grasped his teacher's point about the sensitive balance between reality and imagination in fiction. After the discussion

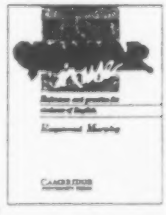
Cambridge ESL...*The Professional Choice*



Cambridge Preparation for the TOEFL® Test
Jolene Gear
A comprehensive test preparation course that helps learners acquire the skills they need to succeed on the Test of English as a Foreign Language. All the print components are conveniently contained in a single book which includes diagnostic tests, skills-building exercises, two full-length practice tests, tapescripts, and an answer key. A set of cassettes containing a variety of North American dialects is also available.

Clear Speech
Pronunciation and Listening Comprehension in North American English
Second Edition
Judy B. Gilbert
A revised and expanded edition of the highly successful and innovative pronunciation course for intermediate and advanced students of English as a Second Language. New features of the Second Edition include: more practice material, more pair practice, reorganization of teaching points, and presentation of sounds within the context of speech patterns.

Basic Grammar in Use
Reference and Practice for Students of English
Raymond Murphy
Basic Grammar in Use is an ideal lower-level text to precede the highly popular *Grammar in Use*. Designed for high-beginner to low-intermediate learners of English, this text presents basic grammatical structures in an easy-to-understand format.



For your free examination copy, please write to

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS
ESL Marketing Dept.
40 West 20th Street, New York, NY 10011-4211

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

about *The bat and the rabbits*. Eduardo was overheard saying to another student, "It's interesting, but is it believable?"

Multiple Opportunities for Written Reflection

Once or twice a week, the students and Taylor wrote to each other in a reading dialogue journal. (For a more detailed description of dialogue journals, see Atwell, 1987; Fulwiler, 1987; and Peyton & Reed, 1990.) Although the focus of the correspondence was on books, the students and teacher often found themselves making spontaneous connections between what they were reading and their own writing (e.g., Homa's comments about the self-questioning nature of stories quoted at the beginning of the article).

The students also corresponded with Samway in letters that focused on discussions about writing and writing processes. Prior to the interview in which Shanti discussed the influence of Cinderella on her *Madonna* story, Shanti and Samway had a similar conversation in a letter. Shanti wrote the following:

> you asked me why was madonna story was easiar. because I read lot cinderealla stories because they give lot of ideas like stepsister, stepbrother and stepfather.

Shanti and the other children had multiple opportunities and more than one person with whom to reflect on their processes. As a consequence, the children developed confidence in their own insights. Shanti provides an excellent example of this phenomenon. Her reading dialogue journal entries were rather formulaic throughout the school year (i.e., listing the title, the name of the author, and her favorite part). In contrast, in her letters to Samway, she displayed a growing self-assuredness, she initiated topics and asked and answered questions. In the interview with Taylor, that self-assuredness emerged when the topic turned to the point that she and Samway had discussed earlier in their letter. For the first time in the interview, Shanti spoke without hesitation and explained and illustrated her points at length.

Eduardo also had multiple opportunities to reflect upon his literacy skills. In this case, his language arts teacher also invited students to reflect upon books and writing. When discussing the influence of his reading dialogue journal, Eduardo commented:

> In L.A. [Language Arts] I can do it quicker because I have, like, more experience with this. [Name of Language Arts teacher] is telling us, "What do you think about the book? Now I can answer it because I'm reading maybe this book and in there—so I can say the same thing and it's easy.

Literature Studies

Although students were given a great deal of time to develop their individual tastes and expertise as readers, students occasionally worked together to study a piece or pieces of literature as a group. (For a more detailed description of literature studies, see Edelsky, 1988; Peterson & Eeds, 1990; and Samway et al., 1991.) These discussions were open-ended and students were free to raise any issues suggested by the text. In many ways, literature studies serve the same purpose as writing conferences—they give students and teachers an opportunity to explore texts collaboratively. When Shanti commented that her *Madonna* story was easier because she had read a lot of Cinderella stories, she was referring to ESOL class discussions about a collection of Cinderella stories from around the world. Her ESOL class had just completed these discussions when she spontaneously wrote *Madonna*.

Concluding Remarks

All of the activities described above reflect the value of a collaborative language and literacy environment. When adults and children are members of a learning community, they are able to help each other generate writing topics, select books to read, refine ideas, and assume a more conscious, critical stance as a reader and writer. The young people introduced in this paper have had many opportunities to be reflective readers and writers. Like professional writers, they are conscious of how others craft stories. When they read, they are aware of what works and does not work, and often utilize that knowledge when they write. For example, they borrow elements from other people's writing that catch their imagination and seem appropriate for their own writing. Because of the literacy experiences available to them, the children have more resources at their disposal when working on their writing, thereby enhancing their literacy development. As Shirley Brice Heath (1985) has pointed out, children must be provided with opportunities to develop such reflective powers in order for extensive literacy to emerge.

References

Atwell, N. (1987). *In the middle: Writing, reading, and learning with adolescents*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Babbit, N. (1975). *Tuck everlasting*. New York: Farrar, Strauss & Giroux.

Calkins, L. M. (1986). *The art of teaching writing*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Edelsky, C. (1988). Living in the author's world: Analyzing the author's craft. *The California Reader, 21*, 14-17.

Fulwiler, T. (Ed.) (1987). *The journal book*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Graves, D. H. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and children at work*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Heath, S. B. (1985). Literacy or literate skills. In P. Larson, E. Judd, & D. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL '84: A brave new world for TESOL* (pp. 15-28). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Peterson, R., & Eeds, M. (1990). *Grand conversations: Literature groups in action*. Richmond Hill, Canada: Scholastic.

Peyton, J. K., & Reed, L. (1990). *Dialogue journal writing with nonnative English speakers: A handbook for teachers*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL.

Samway, K. Davies. (1992). *Writer's workshop and children acquiring English*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Samway, K. Davies et al. (1991). Reading the skeleton, the heart and the brain of a book: An alternative reading program. *The Reading Teacher, 45*, 196-205.

Urzúa, C. (1987). 'You stopped too soon': Second language children composing and revising. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 279-304.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Lucinda Pease-Alvarez and anonymous *TESOL Journal* reviewers for their insights and comments on drafts of this paper. We have been working together for several years, exploring the literacy development of nonnative-English-speaking children in the elementary and middle school grades. Our most recent collaboration has focused on the role of response in literary correspondence between adults and nonnative English-speaking children. This project has been supported, in part, by a National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Collaborative Research Grant.

Authors

Katharine Davies Samway is Associate Professor at San Jose State University in San Jose, California. She is particularly interested in the literacy development of children acquiring English as a nonnative language and the influence of classroom learning events on this development.

Dorothy Taylor is an ESL teacher at the Adult Learning Center, Buffalo Public Schools, and Erie Community College. She has taught English to nonnative speakers of all ages.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Digest

January 1994

Content-Centered Language Learning

(EDO-FL-94-06)

JoAnn Crandall, University of Maryland Baltimore County

Although estimates of the number of language minority students in U.S. schools vary, there is consensus that the numbers are rising dramatically. "Increasingly, the American classroom is multiethnic, multiracial, and multilingual at all levels" (Crandall, 1992). In response, a number of program models have been developed to meet the needs of language minority students, many involving the integration of language and content instruction. In addition, attention to the lack of foreign language proficiency among Americans has led to the development of a number of foreign language programs that integrate academic content into language instruction. In this approach, the second or foreign language is used as the medium of instruction for mathematics, science, social studies, and other academic subjects; it is the vehicle used for teaching and acquiring subject specific knowledge.

This Digest discusses the rationale for integrating language and content instruction and provides an overview of some of the program models and teaching techniques that focus on this approach.

Why Use Content-Centered Instruction?

In the United States, Krashen's theory (1982) of second language acquisition has influenced the development of integrated instruction at all levels. Krashen suggests that a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions are similar to those present in first language acquisition: that is, when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than on form; when the language input is at or just above the proficiency of the learner; and when there is sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment. This suggests that the focus of the second language classroom should be on something meaningful, such as academic content, and that modification of the target language facilitates language acquisition and makes academic content accessible to second language learners.

Cummins (1981) argues that individuals develop two types of language proficiency: basic interpersonal language skills and cognitive academic language proficiency. He suggests that these two types of proficiency vary according to the degree of context available to the individual and the degree of cognitive challenge of the task. Social language can be acquired in 1 to 2 years, but the level of proficiency needed to read social studies texts or solve mathematics word problems can take 5 to 7 years to develop (Collier, 1987).

Integrated language and content instruction offers a means by which English as a second language (ESL) students can continue their academic or cognitive development while they are also acquiring academic language proficiency. It also offers a means by which foreign language students can develop fuller proficiency in the foreign language they are studying. In foreign language or two-way bilingual immersion programs, in which a portion of the curriculum is taught through the foreign language, some type of integrated language and content instruction appears to be essential.

Program Models

Content-based language instruction. In this approach--also called integrated language and content instruction--ESL, bilingual, or foreign language teachers use instructional materials, learning tasks, and classroom techniques from academic content areas as the vehicle for developing language, content, cognitive, and study skills. The second language is used as the medium of instruction for mathematics, science, social studies, and other academic subjects. Instruction is usually given by a language teacher or by a combination of the language and content teachers.

Sheltered subject matter teaching. This approach involves adapting the language of texts or tasks and use of certain methods familiar to language teachers (demonstrations, visuals, graphic organizers, or cooperative work) to make instruction more accessible to students of different English proficiency levels. This type of instruction is also called sheltered English or language-sensitive content instruction and is given by the regular classroom or content teacher, or by a language teacher with special expertise in another academic area (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989).

Theme-based. In these programs, a language curriculum is developed around selected topics drawn from one content area (e.g., marketing) or from across the curriculum (e.g., pollution and the environment). The goal is to assist learners in developing general academic language skills through interesting and relevant content.

Sheltered instruction. Here, a content curriculum is adapted to accommodate students' limited proficiency in the language of instruction. This model was originally developed for elementary foreign language immersion programs to enable some portion of the curriculum to be taught through the foreign language (Genesee, 1987). It is commonly used in immersion and two-way bilingual programs (Met, 1991) and has been adapted for use in second language programs with large numbers of limited English proficient students of intermediate or advanced English proficiency.

Language across the curriculum. This is the name given to content-centered instruction that involves a conscious effort to integrate language instruction into all other curricular offerings. This may include the development of integrated curricula and some kind of paired or team teaching.

In schools where enough students share a common first language, bilingual programs using sheltered instruction have been developed. In one program, students move from content instruction in their first language to sheltered-content instruction in English, and then to mainstream classes where they are integrated with English-speaking peers. They receive content-based ESL as well (Freeman, Freeman, & Gonzales, 1987).

For schools with insufficient numbers of language minority students to create sheltered language programs, the techniques for sheltering instruction can be implemented in classes with both native and non-native English-speaking students.

Adjunct model. This model links a specific language learning course with a content course in which both second language learners and native English speakers are enrolled. The courses share a content base, but the focus of instruction differs. The language teacher emphasizes language skills, such as academic reading or writing, while the content teacher focuses on traditional academic concepts. This model requires substantial coordination between the language and content teacher; usually the ESL teacher makes the extra effort of becoming familiar with the content. An adjunct program is usually limited to cases where students have language skills that are sufficiently advanced to enable them to participate in content instruction with English speaking students.

Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). This approach combines language, content, and learning strategy instruction into a transitional ESL approach for upper elementary and secondary students of intermediate or advanced English proficiency (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987).

Teaching Methods

There are a variety of strategies and techniques used in content-centered second language instruction. Here, the discussion will be limited to four types of strategies—cooperative learning and other grouping strategies, task-based or experiential learning, whole language strategies, and graphic organizers—that increase attention to academic language learning, contribute to content learning, and encourage development of thinking and study skills. (See Crandall, 1992, for additional information.)

Cooperative learning. In this method, students of different linguistic and educational backgrounds and different skill levels work together on a common task for a common goal in either the language or the content classroom. Cooperative groups encourage students to communicate, to share insights, test hypotheses, and jointly construct knowledge. Depending on their language proficiency, students can be assigned various roles as facilitator, recorder, reporter, or illustrator. Other grouping strategies involve peer tutoring or pairing a second language learner with a more English-proficient peer.

Task-based or experiential learning. In this approach, appropriate contexts are provided for developing thinking and study skills as well as language and academic concepts for students of different levels of language proficiency. Students learn by carrying out specific tasks or projects: for example, "doing science" and not just reading about it (Rosebery, Warren, & Conant, 1992).

Whole language approach. The philosophy of whole language is based on the concept that students need to experience language as an integrated whole. It focuses on the need for an integrated approach to language instruction within a context that is meaningful to students (Goodman, 1986). The approach is consistent with integrated language and content instruction as both emphasize meaningful engagement and authentic language use, and both link oral and written language development (Blanton, 1992). Whole language strategies that have been implemented in content-centered language classes include dialogue journals, reading response journals, learning logs, process-based writing, and language experience stories (Crandall, 1992).

Graphic Organizers. These provide a "means for organizing and presenting information so that it can be understood, remembered, and applied" (Crandall, 1992). Graphs, realia, tables, maps, flow charts, timelines, and Venn diagrams are used to help students place information in a comprehensible context. They enable students to organize information obtained from written or oral texts, develop reading strategies, increase retention, activate schema as a pre-reading or pre-listening activity, and organize ideas during the prewriting stage (Crandall, 1992).

Conclusion

Although this Digest has focused on content-centered language instruction in the United States, similar interest in integrated language and content instruction is evident in many parts of the world, especially in countries where English serves as the medium of instruction for part of the educational program.

Among the issues facing content-centered language instruction in the United States is the need for research to evaluate the effectiveness of integrated instruction, specifying optimal conditions for various programmatic effects, including the timing of integrated instruction, the relative effectiveness of different program models, and the use of various instructional strategies, texts, and assessment measures. Teacher training is another concern as the number of second language learners in U.S. classrooms increases. To accommodate this diverse student population, content-area teachers need to know how to shelter their instruction, and language teachers need to learn how to integrate academic language and content better in their classrooms (Crandall, 1992).

References

Blanton, L.L. (1992). A holistic approach to college ESL: Integrating language and content. *ELT Journal, 46*, 285-293.

Brinton, D.M., Snow, M.A., & Wesche, M.B. (1989). *Content-based second language instruction*. New York: Harper & Row.

Chamot, A.U., & O'Malley, J.M. (1987). The cognitive academic language learning approach: A bridge to the mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 227-249.

Collier, V.P. (1987). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 617-641.

Crandall, J. (1992). Content-centered instruction in the United States. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 13*, 111-126.

Crandall, J.A. (1993). Diversity as challenge and resource. In *ESL students in the CUNY classroom: Faculty strategies for success*. New York: City College of New York and Kingsborough Community College.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*. Los Angeles: California State University, Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center.

Genesee, F. (1987). *Learning through two languages: Studies of immersion and bilingual education*. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Freeman, D., Freeman, Y., & Gonzales, G. (1987). Success for LEP students: The sunnyside sheltered English program. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 361-67.

Goodman, K.S. (1986). *What's whole about whole language? A parent/teacher guide to children's learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Met, M. (1991). Learning language through content; learning content through language. *Foreign Language Annals, 24*, 281-95.

Rosebery, A.S., Warren, B., & Conant, F.R. (1992). *Appropriating scientific discourse: Findings from language minority classrooms*. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

This report was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Dept. of Education, under contract no. 93002010. The opinions expressed do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of OERI or ED.

Teaching Content Knowledge and ESOL in Multicultural Classrooms

Gloria M. Tang

ESOL students in the United States and Canada who study in multicultural settings take approximately 2 to 3 years to reach proficiency in basic communication skills in English (Cummins, 1984). However, they take more than 5 years to reach native-speaker levels in academic content language (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 1984). By implication, unless ESOL students learn language and content simultaneously, they will be denied the full benefits of education. However, school-age students, particularly those at the upper intermediate and secondary levels (ages 12-18), have difficulty understanding content knowledge written and presented orally in English, and they have difficulty expressing concepts in English, even when they have learned them in their first language.

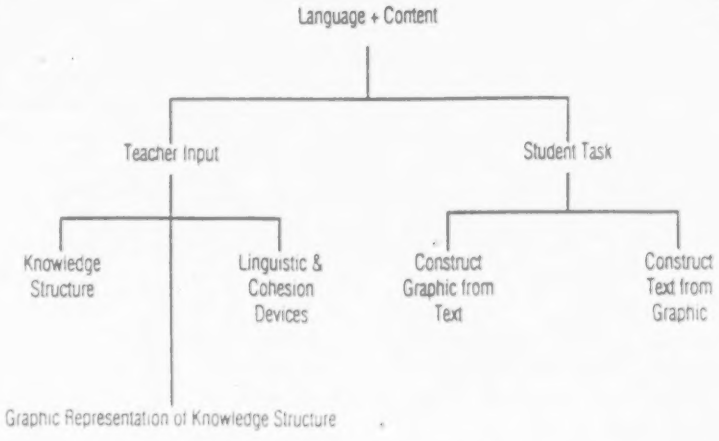
How can we help students learn new content knowledge written or spoken in English? How can we enable them to demonstrate their content knowledge in English? How can we assist them in using and expressing their background knowledge in English and linking it to new knowledge?

Methods which endeavour to answer these questions can be divided into two categories: those which bring the students' English proficiency to a level at which they can read expository text in content textbooks, or those which bring the language in content textbooks to the level of the students.

Traditionally, the former has involved removing students from the regular stream and giving them intensive courses to develop their written and oral English skills until they have acquired adequate proficiency for enrollment in content-area classes. However, marginalized or segregated programs mean denying students the full benefits of education, that is, full access to content-area subject matter and, possibly, development of thinking skills. The alternative approach involves modifying the text, and, perhaps, using adjunct materials to bring the language in classroom texts to students. This process commonly results in watering down the course content and exposing students to language that is not usually found in real textbooks.

A more effective solution is to employ a model which combines the two, a model which systematically integrates language and content. The proposed classroom model enables ESL students to access the language of textbooks and, at the same time, helps them reach a level at which they can read the language of content classroom texts independently as well as write academic

Figure 1
A Classroom Model



Tang, G.M. (Winter 1992/1993). Teaching content knowledge and ESOL in multicultural classrooms. *TESOL Journal*, 2(2). Used by permission.

Reprinted by permission of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and author Gloria Tang.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 2
Knowledge Structures of Chapter 1: *Other Places, Other Times*

CLASSIFICATION/CONCEPTS	PRINCIPLES	EVALUATION
Homo Habilis—early tool-using ancestors of modern man **Homo Erectus**—first human to walk upright **Neanderthal**—more sophisticated tools and social structure **Cro-Magnon**—most technically advanced of early people	**Homo Erectus** • use of fire allowed migration to colder climates • development of stronger tools and weapons allowed Homo Erectus to kill larger animals **Cro-Magnon Man** • sophistication allowed them to survive the ice age • development of farming provided food for long periods of time	
	Homo Habilis • 1.75 million to 800,000 years ago **Homo Erectus** • 1.25 million to 250,000 years ago **Neanderthal Man** • 130,000 to 30,000 years ago **Cro-Magnon Man** • 30,000 to 10,000 years ago	
DESCRIPTION	**SEQUENCE**	**CHOICE**

discourse in English. It takes into consideration systematic development of students' thinking skills. It consists of five components (see Figure 1, p. 8) which can be sequenced in a variety of ways:

1. Explicit teaching of text/knowledge structures of text organization
2. Explicit teaching of graphic representation of text/knowledge structures
3. Explicit teaching of linguistic and cohesion devices of text/knowledge structures
4. Setting student tasks which involve constructing graphics from expository prose, and
5. Setting tasks which provide opportunities for students to practice constructing expository prose from a graphic.

The rest of this paper shows how the model can be successfully implemented in seventh-grade social studies classes by describing the work of one teacher.

Implementation

A teacher from the Burnaby School District (in British Columbia, Canada) introduced some of the components of this model into her seventh-grade social studies class and found the strategies successful. The textbook she used was *Other Places, Other Times* (Neering & Grant, 1986), a social studies textbook widely used in public schools in the Vancouver and Burnaby school districts.

The teacher planned her lesson according to Mohan's (1986) knowledge framework. She read each chapter to determine the top-level structure of the text, to organize the content according to the knowledge structures in the knowledge framework (see Figure 2, above), and to prepare a structured overview, or graphic organizer, which best

Figure 3
Time Line of Early People to accompany Chapter 1: *Other Places, Other Times*

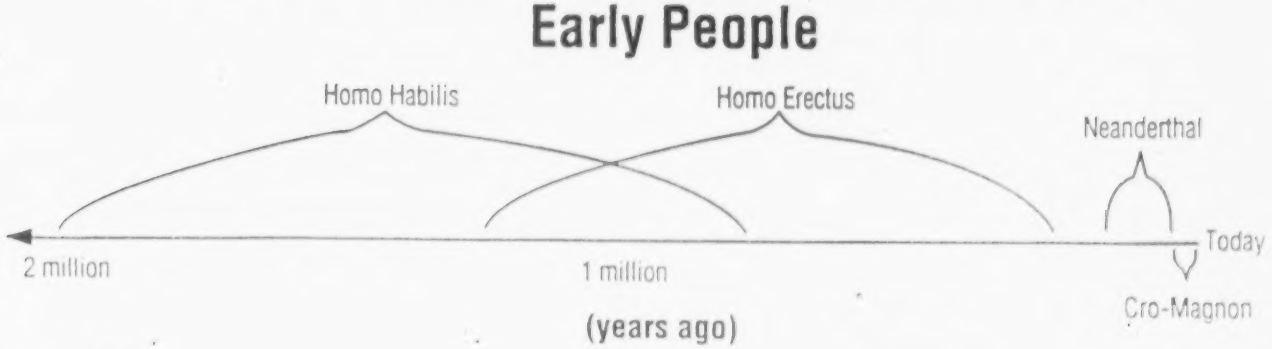
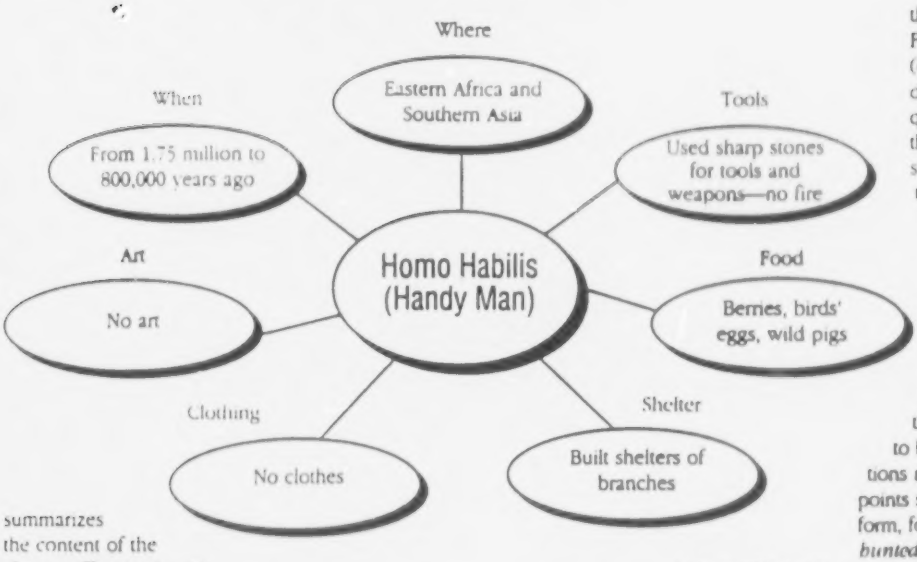


Figure 4
Graphic Representation of Homo Habilis to accompany *Other Places, Other Times*



summarizes the content of the chapter. Chapter 1, entitled "Early People," (Neering & Grant 1986, pp. 1-27) looks at the Earth from 1.75 million years ago until the time of the first civilizations. It concentrates on the development of the four major classifications of early humankind: Homo Habilis, Homo Erectus, Neanderthal Man, and Cro-Magnon Man. The top-level structure of the chapter is a temporal sequence of descriptions, so she decided that the structured overview that would best represent it was a time line (see Figure 3, p. 9). The graphic helped her plan the content she was going to present, that is, early people, as well as linguistic devices associated with the time line, for example, *lived from ... to ..., began in ... and ended in ..., inhabited the earth for ... years, during that period*. In presenting the chapter overview, she explicitly introduced the knowledge structure "sequence" and the language used in chronologically ordered texts.

Having identified the knowledge structure of each section, she decided that the chapter could be divided into four sections according to the four major groups of early people. Each section describes one group of early people, their way of life, the change and development they experienced, and the impact the environment had on them. She put the information in each section in a graphic and because similar information can be extracted from each of the sections, she organized the information in the same web-like graphic form for all the sections (see Figure 4, above). The purpose of recycling the same graphic form was to provide a schema students could access again and again. It also allowed her to use the same linguistic devices repeatedly to reinforce learning. She decided on a web because this graphic was familiar to her students.

The teacher presented the first of these completed graphic organizers, Figure 4, on the overhead projector (OHP). She used the language of description consistently to answer the questions *when?*, *where?*, and *what?* After the graphic presentation, she referred students to the text, explicitly drawing their attention to the knowledge structure, description, and the linguistic devices specific to that knowledge structure. In presenting the next two major groups of early people, she varied her strategies. She built up one of the graphics on the OHP while presenting the section, and she built up the other cooperatively with the students by assigning the paragraphs to be read and by again asking the questions *when?*, *where?*, and *what?* The linguistic points she focused on were verbs in the past form, for example, *were, was, lived, ate, hunted*; adjectives and adverbial phrases of comparison, for example, *longer than, short, erect, sharp, pointed, different from, the same as, similar to*, and *as large as*. By building the graphic together with students, she was helping them to make the link between the graphic and the text and to see that the two are giving the same information but in different forms. She was also exposing students to the real language of description found in textbooks, a step towards

Where
Europe, Asia, Africa, North and South America, Australia
When
From 30,000 to 10,000 years ago
Tools
Chisels, knives, spearpoints, needles, fish hooks, harpoon heads, lamps
Cro-Magnon Man
Art
Painting on cave walls, necklaces from shells and animal teeth, flutes and whistles from animal bones
Food
Hunted animals and gathered wild plants
Clothing
Probably made coats from animal skins
Shelter
Lived in caves

Figure 5
Graphic Representation of Cro-Magnon Man to accompany *Other Places, Other Times*

175
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 6
Chapter Review: *Other Times, Other Places*

	When	Where	Tools	Food	Shelter	Clothes	Art
Homo Habilis	From 1.75 million to 800,000 years ago	Eastern Africa and Southern Asia	Used sharp stones for tools and weapons—no fire	Berries, bird's eggs, wild pigs	Built shelters of branches	No clothes	No art
Homo Erectus	From 1.25 million to 250,000 years ago	Africa, Asia, and Europe	Fire, flint blades, pointed wooden spears	Wild animals • elephant • cooked meat	Probably built shelters of branches	No clothes	No art
Neanderthal Man	From 130,000 years ago to 30,000 years ago	Europe, Middle East	Knives, borers, spear sharpeners made from stone	Wild animals • bear • cooked meat	Lived in caves	Animal hides for clothes	No art
Cro-Magnon Man	From 30,000 to 10,000 years ago	Europe, Asia, Africa, North and South America, Australia	Chisels, knives, spearpoints, needles, fish hooks, harpoon heads, lamps	Hunted animals and gathered wild plants	Lived in caves	Probably made coats from animal skins	Painting on cave walls, necklaces from shells and animal teeth, flutes and whistles from animal bones

managing school knowledge independently. After sufficient exposure to the structure and the language in two similar graphics on Homo Erectus and Neanderthal Man, the students were able to complete the section on Cro-Magnon Man (see Figure 5, p. 10) on their own.

To bring the whole chapter together, she prepared a table (see Figure 6, above) and required students to complete it using the information in the webs. Using such a graphic serves several purposes: It summarizes the chapter; it reinforces the content knowledge students have learned; and it enables the students to see the relations of the knowledge in the slots, that is, the development of the early peoples. The teacher was moving them from managing information in isolation to managing the relations of information, which is a step forward in their cognitive development. The table also provides further opportunities for students to use language to compare and classify.

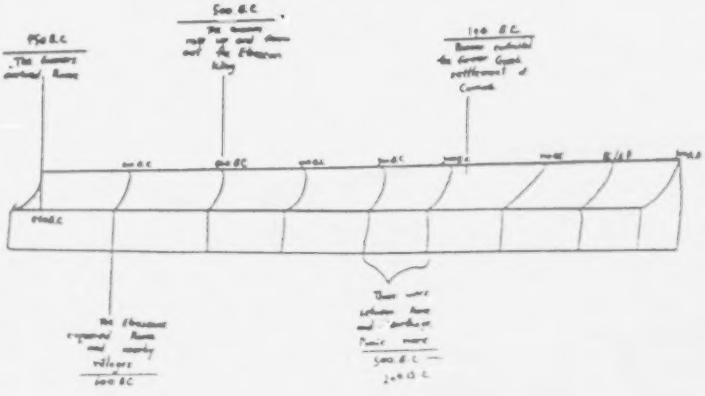
Note that while the vocabulary inside the cells are terms which show the content schemata of the information, the shape of the web, and the lines which join them, the headings such as *Where*, *When*, and *Tools* represent the formal schemata or the linguistic devices specific to that knowledge structure or genre. These are terms which can be used again and again across topics and curricula.

The students were gradually trained to build similar graphics on their own after working cooperatively with the teacher a number of times. The teacher pointed out linguistic devices and provided opportunities for them to practice constructing graphics from similarly structured text. The teacher introduced the time line in chapter 1, and she was delighted when all her ESL students could build up a time line on their own when they came to chapter 5 (see Figure 7).

To give students practice in writing a coherent passage from a graphic, the teacher provided familiar graphic representations of familiar knowledge structures and asked students to write an essay based on the graphic. She found that she had to provide linguistic devices and ensure that students knew "how to link sentences together ... and how to present and focus information" (Mohan, 1986, p. 94).

Only by requiring students to interact with the graphic after explicit teaching can they truly learn to read and write graphics and to recognize text structure. Constructing a prose passage from a graphic is also a step towards writing expository text. The graphic and the text are semantically comparable

Figure 7
Student-Generated Time Line



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

(see Mohan, 1989). They convey the same information and they have the same knowledge structure. But in order to convert the graphic into expository prose, students have to translate the lines, arrows, and spatial arrangement, which are graphic representations of linguistic and cohesion devices, into linguistic and cohesion devices in text form. Figure 8 is a cause-effect graphic. The title and the headings give the signal that it is a table showing a series of causes and effects, and spatial arrangement, the lines or arrows connecting the slots, signify *caused, brought about, resulted in, leading to, so, because, the effect of ... was ...* or *as a result of ..., ...*

Figure 8
A Cause-Effect Table for *Other Places, Other Times*
Events Leading to the End of the Roman Republic

Cause	Effect
The Roman Empire expanded rapidly.	Romans had to spend a lot of time and energy defending their empire from invaders.
Angry Italians wanted the advantages of Roman citizenship. They threatened to rebel and attack Rome.	The Romans granted citizenship to the Italians.
Many internal problems existed • Poor people were starving • Government officials became corrupt • Consuls were assassinated • Slaves rebelled against rough treatment from masters.	The republican system was weakened.

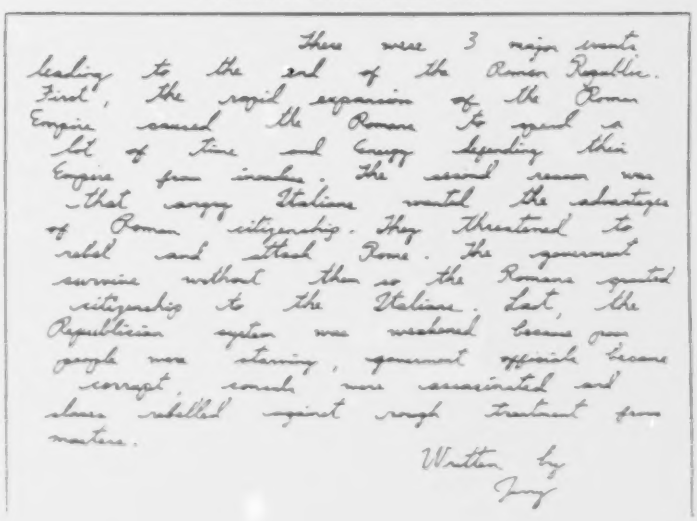
The teacher had taught the knowledge structure of cause-effect and exposed the students to cause-effect tables. She had also pointed out the linguistic devices many times and given the students practice in constructing text passages from graphics. Figure 9 shows that students could write a coherent passage on the events leading to the end of the Roman Republic and that they could produce expository prose using devices of cause-effect (e.g., *cause, the reason was, so,* and *because*).

I should, perhaps, reiterate that the process is slow. Students cannot be expected to be able to understand a social studies text or to write expository prose using linguistic devices of description, classification, or cause-effect after simply having gone through the five components once. They need explicit teaching and practice to acquire the skill of understanding and expressing content knowledge and academic language.

Conclusion

Results of research (Early, Mohan, & Hooper, 1989) carried out in schools in Vancouver point to the fact that adopting the proposed model in classroom teaching, that is, explicit teaching of text/knowledge structure and graphic representation of knowledge structures; and providing practice in constructing graphics from text and text from graphics in intermediate and secondary ESL social studies classes can help to increase students' ability to read and write academic discourse. In other words, this classroom model appears to have the potential for bringing classroom texts to a level students can comprehend, and at the same time, bringing students to the English proficiency level where they can read and write classroom texts.

Figure 9
Student-Generated Text


There were 3 main events
leading to the end of the Roman Republic.
First, the rapid expansion of the Roman
Empire caused the Romans to spend a
lot of time and energy defending their
Empire from invaders. The second reason was
that angry Italians wanted the advantages
of Roman citizenship. They threatened to
rebel and attack Rome. The government
survive without them so the Romans granted
citizenship to the Italians. Last, the
Republician system was weakened because poor
people were starving, government officials became
corrupt, consuls were assassinated and
slaves rebelled against rough treatment from
masters.
Written by
Jing

References

Collier, V. P. (1987). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 617-641.

Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Early, M., Mohan, B. A., & Hooper, H. R. (1989). The Vancouver School Board language and content project. In J. H. Esling (Ed.), *Multicultural education and policy: ESL in the 1990s* (pp. 107-122). Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Mohan, B. A. (1986). *Language and content*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Mohan, B. A. (1989). Language socialization. *Word, 4*, 100-114.

Neering, R., & Grant, P. (1986). *Other places, other times*. Toronto: Gage Educational.

Acknowledgment

I wish to thank Cathy Humphries of the Burnaby School District, Burnaby, British Columbia for permission to use her graphic supplements to *Other People, Other Times* (Neering & Grant, 1986).

Author

Gloria M. Tang is Assistant Professor of ESL in the Department of Language Education at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. Previously, she was head of the Educational Technology Department at Northcote and Grantham Colleges of Education in Hong Kong. Her research interests include studying the relationship between academic discourse and graphic literacy across languages and cultures and devising tasks and graphics for enhancing ESL student learning in multicultural classrooms.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

ESL Through Content-Area Instruction

Prepared by Tarey Reilly

May 1988

This *Digest* is based on the ERIC/CLL *Language in Education* series monograph entitled *ESL Through Content-Area Instruction: Mathematics, Science, Social Studies*, JoAnn Crandall, editor. It is available from Prentice-Hall/Regents for $10.67. To order, write to: Book Distribution Center, Route 59 at Brook Hill Dr., West Nyack, NY 10994 or call 1-800-223-1360.

ESL and Content-Area Instruction

Content-based ESL is a method that integrates English-as-a-second-language instruction with subject-matter instruction. The technique focuses not only on learning a second language, but on using that language as a medium to learn mathematics, science, social studies, or other academic subjects. Although this approach has been used for many years in adult, professional, and university education programs for foreign students, content-based ESL programs at the elementary and secondary school levels are just emerging. One of the reasons for the increasing interest among educators in developing content-based language instruction is the theory that language acquisition is based on input that is meaningful and understandable to the learner (Krashen, 1981, 1982). Parallels drawn between first and second language acquisition suggest that the kinds of input that children get from their caretakers should serve as a model for teachers in the input they provide to second language learners, regardless of age. Input must be comprehensible to the learner and be offered in such a way as to allow multiple opportunities to understand and use the language. If comprehensible input is provided and the student feels little anxiety, then acquisition will take place.

Krashen posits a dichotomy between acquisition and learning, with one (acquisition) serving to initiate all language and the other (learning) serving only as a monitor or editor, activated when the learner has time and is focusing on the correctness of his or her language. In another dichotomy, Cummins (1979, 1981) has hypothesized two different kinds of language proficiency: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), which are language skills used in interpersonal relations or in informal situations; and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), which is the kind of language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language in less contextually rich (or more context-reduced) situations. Cummins suggests that BICS are relatively easy to acquire, taking only 1 to 2 years, but that CALP is much more difficult, taking 5 to 7 years and necessitating direct teaching of the language in the academic context.

Many content-based ESL programs have been developed to provide students with an opportunity to learn CALP, as well as to provide a less abrupt transition from the ESL classroom to an all-English-medium academic program. Content-based ESL courses—whether taught by the ESL teacher, the content-area teacher, or some combination—provide direct instruction in the special language of the subject matter, while focusing attention as much or more on the subject matter itself.

Mathematics and ESL

The language of mathematics has its own special vocabulary, syntax (sentence structure), semantic properties (truth conditions), and discourse (text) features. Math texts: (a) lack redundancy and paraphrase, (b) are conceptually packed, (c) are of high density, (d) require up-and-down and left-to-right eye movements, (e) require a slower reading rate than natural language texts, (f) require multiple readings, (g) use a variety of symbols such as charts and graphs, and (h) contain a large number of technical words with precise meanings (Bye, 1975). These language features, when combined with the mathematics content of the written text, require the students to apply mathematics concepts, procedures, and applications they have already learned.

The classroom environment in which ESL is taught through mathematics content should be carefully structured so that second language acquisition can occur. Instructional activities should promote second language development through a natural, subconscious process in which the focus is not on language per se, but on communicating the concepts, processes, and applications of mathematics. Instructional activities in both the ESL and mathematics classroom should be built on students' real-life experiences and prior knowledge of mathematics, and offer situations in which students can interact with the teacher and fellow students. Lessons that teach new concepts in mathematics should use graphics, manipulatives, and other hands-on, concrete materials that clarify and reinforce meanings in mathematics communicated through language. Studies have shown that limited-English-proficient students can acquire both mathematics and English simultaneously when they are involved in interactive activities (Wilson, DeAvila, & Intili, 1982; DeAvila & Duncan, 1984).

Science and ESL

Science is generally defined as a set of concepts and relationships developed through the processes of observation, identification, description, experimental investigation, and theoretical explanation of natural phenomena. Through scientific inquiry, students develop learning processes inherent in

Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

thinking: observing, classifying, comparing, communicating, measuring, inferring, predicting, and identifying space and time relationships. Current approaches to science and second language education based on research and classroom practice indicate a set of central notions for relating science and ESL. Science inquiry facilitates the development of ESL by providing the following:

- a "sociocognitive conflict" that spurs development of a new language system;
- a source of meaningful and relevant language input, using hands-on materials and texts with extralinguistic devices (diagrams, charts, pictures) to clarify meaning;
- positive affective conditions of high motivation and low anxiety;
- extensive opportunities for small-group interactions in which students negotiate meanings and receive comprehensible language input;
- opportunities for heterogeneous grouping with the role of peer tutor alternating among students, factors that contribute to input, interaction, and a positive, affective climate;
- experience with a wide range of language functions;
- extensive vocabulary development needed for school success;
- the integration of all modalities of language use: listening, speaking, reading, and writing;
- literacy-related tasks for development of cognitive/academic language proficiency; and
- the use of prior cultural and educational experiences for developing new concepts.

Science provides a rich context for genuine language use. From a language acquisition perspective, science can serve as a focal point around which oral language and literacy in ESL can develop. Specifically, science offers:

- interesting, relevant, and challenging content;
- opportunities for students to negotiate meanings;
- an abundance of appropriate language input;
- conditions for keeping students involved;
- materials for development of reading;
- activities for development of writing; and
- experiences with the forms and functions of English.

Social Studies and ESL

An ESL/social studies class should be concerned with more than just historical facts, geography, and terminology. It can promote the development of critical concepts of American history, thereby helping culturally different students to understand their new country, the United States, and its origins. Teachers can use language classes as a means of expanding social studies knowledge as well as use social studies content to enhance language development. Conventional instructional activities may be adapted by teachers not only to enhance LEP students' language development and knowledge of social studies, but to develop their cognitive skills as well. Strategies include:

- *Use of Manipulatives and Multimedia Materials.* Students need visual materials to understand time periods in history; for example, photographs and prints, realia, and filmstrips help students understand ways of life of the Americans living in the colonial period.
- *Language Experiences.* The teacher guides students' spontaneous speech by targeting specific vocabulary structures and concepts from the stories elicited from the students. For example, in an intermediate-level ESL social studies class studying the role of the Constitutional Convention in writing the U.S. Constitution, the concept of reaching compromises to make decisions may be an entirely new idea. The social studies teacher needs to determine whether the students can recall aspects from their own countries' governments that might be similar. If the students do not clearly understand the topic, then the teacher must create an experience that the students can draw from later. For example, the students could role-play various scenes from colonial times, when power was concentrated in the hands of a few. They could represent different interest groups, each arguing to have certain laws passed. With the teacher as facilitator, the students will come to understand that they must give up certain wants if any progress is to be achieved. Once the students have understood the concept of compromise, the teacher can proceed with the lesson on the Constitution and how its laws were created.
- *Semantic Webbing.* Students learn how to perceive relationships and integrate information and concepts within the context of a main idea or topic (Freedman & Reynolds, 1980). Following an oral discussion or reading, students construct web strands and supports by putting key words or phrases in boxes. Boxes are connected to illustrate relationships and subheadings under the main idea, greatly aiding comprehension. For example, the students draw boxes with the events that led to the American Revolutionary War.

Content-area teaching of English as a second language is not an end in itself but a means to an end. The strategies used for LEP students in social studies, mathematics, and science classes equip them with skills that will help them achieve success in the mainstream classroom.

References

Bye, M.P. (1975). *Reading in math and cognitive development.* Unpublished manuscript. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 124 926)

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research, 49,* 222-251.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework.* Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center.

DeAvila, E., & Duncan, S. (1984). *Finding out and descubrimiento: Teacher's guide.* San Rafael, CA: Linguametrics Group.

Freedman, G., & Reynolds, E. (1980). Enriching basal reader lessons with semantic webbing. *The Reading Teacher, 33,* 677-84.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Wilson, B.E.A., DeAvila, E., & Intili, J.K. (1982, April). *Improving cognitive, linguistic, and academic skills in bilingual classrooms.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York.

About the Monograph

ESL Through Content Area Instruction: Mathematics, Science, Social Studies includes an introductory chapter on content-based ESL by volume editor, JoAnn Crandall, as well as the following three subject-specific chapters:

Mathematics—Theresa Corasaniti Dale, Gilberto J. Cuevas
Science—Carolyn Kessler, Mary Ellen Quinn
Social Studies—Melissa King, Barbara Fagan, Terry Bratt, Rod Baer.

This report was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. RI 88062010. The opinions expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of OERI or ED.

CAL CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Teaching Mathematics to Limited English Proficient Students

Prepared by Deborah J. Short and George Spanos

November 1989

At an in-service workshop on content-based instruction, the facilitator presents an exercise designed to increase awareness of the difficulties encountered in learning mathematics in a second language. The participants are instructed to solve the following word problem in a language with which they have little or no familiarity (French), and to think about some questions that focus on factors involved in problem solving.

Jean et André sont frères. Jean est l'aîné. Les deux vont au lycée qui se trouve à moins de cinq kilomètres de leur maison à Paris. Bien qu'il y ait une différence d'âge de trois ans entre les deux frères, leurs niveaux scolaires ne sont séparés que par deux années. Jean est en quatrième. En quelle classe est André?

1) What are the language difficulties in this problem?
2) What are some math difficulties in this problem?
3) What are some extra-linguistic features that could cause difficulty in solving this problem?

The participants study the problem and try to answer the questions. They begin to realize the difficulties word problems may pose for nonnative-speaking students. The facilitator lists some possible language difficulties:

difficult lexical items, such as *aîné, niveaux, ait;*
comparative terms or structures, such as *aîné,* and *moins de;*
grammar structures with relative and subordinate clauses, such as *qui se trouve à, bien qu'il y ait.*

Before announcing the solution, the facilitator distributes an English version of the problem that simulates a student's word-for-word attempt at translating it.

Jean and Andre are brothers. Jean is older. The two go to a school which is found less than five kilometers from their home in Paris. Although there is a difference in age of three years between the two brothers, their grade levels are only two years apart. Jean is in the fourth. What class is Andre in ?

The group discovers some potential math pitfalls in the wording of the problem. There is extraneous information--unnecessary numbers (*five kilometers, three years*)--and a mixture of cardinal (*two, three*) and ordinal (*fourth*) numbers.

The facilitator then gives the answer: Andre is in the 6th grade at school. You are surprised. You had concluded that Andre was in second grade. After all, 4 - 2 = 2. In response to challenges by participants, the facilitator directs attention to question number 3 on the worksheet.

The facilitator explains that simply knowing the language of instruction and the required math skills may not be sufficient for solving problems. Cultural issues may be present as well. In this problem, one needs to know that the French educational system counts the grade levels in secondary school from 6th (youngest) to 1st (oldest). A teacher must be careful not to assume that all students have the same background knowledge.

The Need for Language-Sensitive Content Instruction

The preceding example suggests the desirability of instruction that is sensitive to the linguistic and cultural needs of language minority students. From the language educator's point of view, it is obvious that a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction has harmful effects on a student's ability to deal with content-area texts, word problems, and lectures. Many language educators (e.g., Spanos, Rhodes, Dale and Crandall, 1988) and a growing number of mathematics and science educators (e.g., Cuevas, 1984, and Mestre, 1981) are providing arguments suggesting that the nature of math and science language imposes a heavy burden on *all* students regardless of the language of instruction. Furthermore, national organizations, such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), the Mathematical Sciences Education Board (MSEB), and the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS) are calling for an approach to education that emphasizes communication for all students, at all school levels.

The recently-published NCTM *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* (1989) lists *learning to communicate mathematically* (p. 8) as one of its five major goals. The NCTM authors maintain that all students can benefit from listening, reading, writing, speaking, and demonstration activities (pp. 26-28, 78-80, 140-142). For nonnative speakers of English, the NCTM states: Students whose primary language is not the language of instruction have unique needs. Specially designed activities and teaching strategies (developed with the assistance of language specialists) should be incorporated into the high school mathematics program in order for all students to have the opportunity to develop their mathematics potential regardless of a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction (p.142).

The MSEB (1989) supports this call for more communication, recommending that teachers engage students in the construction of mathematical understanding through the use of group work, open discussions, presentations, and verbalization of mathematical ideas (p. 58). The MSEB advocates the use of non-traditional teaching models, such as paired classes, that have one teacher for language arts and one for mathematics and science (p. 65).

Such statements challenge language and content-area educators to begin working together to educate students for whom basic English skills or academic language skills are an obstacle to success.

Focusing on the Language of Mathematics

Some research on content-based instruction has focused on the language of mathematics. In 1984, researchers from the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (Crandall, Dale, Rhodes, and Spanos, 1984) initiated a project funded by the Fund for the

Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE). This study involved collaborative research with mathematics educators at several two-year colleges with high language minority enrollments, and led to the development of a set of materials that could be used as a language-focused supplement to beginning algebra classes. The research phase of the project involved group problem-solving activities with language minority and majority students. The researchers produced evidence that the performance of both types of students was severely impeded by a lack of proficiency in the language of mathematics. Further, there were few language-based materials or activities in mathematics classrooms, and fewer opportunities for language arts teachers to become involved in educating these students. In sum, there was little articulation between language arts programs and mathematics programs, despite the obvious language deficiencies faced by large numbers of students enrolled in mathematics.

Meeting the Communication Need

Language minority students are often quick to develop the social language skills that enable them to communicate with their peers outside of the classroom. Within an academic context, however, this basic proficiency is inadequate because language minority students are inexperienced with or lack an understanding of the terminology and writing styles particular to a content area. These students may not be prepared to perform the higher order language and cognitive tasks required in rigorous academic content courses. This latter point also applies to native speakers of English who are often not skilled in analysis, argumentation, and evaluation.

Instruction that emphasizes language activities should be incorporated into content area lessons and curricula. This requires development in teacher training, curricula and materials, assessment, and cooperation between content and language educators.

Teacher Training. Training workshops and seminars can provide content teachers with an opportunity to consider language objectives and increased communication in their classes. An important aspect of these training seminars is the joint participation of content and language educators, providing opportunities for cooperative activities that draw on the expertise of both disciplines. Training seminars present teachers with the theoretical background for integrating language and content and provide opportunities for application through analyses of curricula, suggested instructional strategies and techniques, and assessment tools. Techniques include discovery learning, hands-on and problem-solving activities, cooperative learning and group work, and peer tutoring.

Teacher training can also be provided through the use of video. Several videos, currently under production (see Resources), demonstrate the content/language approach and materials, and have accompanying manuals, for use by teachers for self-instruction when direct training is unavailable.

Curricula and Materials. Once teachers have been trained to increase communication in class, they need appropriate materials for developing their lessons and activities. Teachers can attend workshops on material adaptation where they can learn to modify existing materials for their particular needs. In such workshops, strategy sheets (see Cuevas, Dale, Richardson, Tokar, & Willets, 1986) are used as developmental models. These srategy sheets focus on content and language objectives in lesson plans designed with communicative activities. Teachers might consider using prepared supplemental materials (*e.g., English Skills for Algebra*, Crandall, Dale, Rhodes, and Spanos, 1989) that help students become more proficient in the academic language through interactive listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities.

Assessment. Although assessment tools for determining concept mastery of mathematics, science, and social studies are numerous, instruments for measuring content area language proficiency are scarce. Assessment tools, such as the *Pre-Algebra Lexicon* (see References), are currently being developed and field tested. The diagnostic techniques in the Pre-Algebra Lexicon are organized according to four math categories (concepts, operations, word problems, and problem solving) and the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The techniques allow teachers to assess growth in language skills within the context of daily mathematics instruction.

Cooperation Between Language Educators and Content Educators. Content teachers need to implement strategies for increasing teacher-student and student-student interaction in the classroom and to emphasize communication of the concepts. Language teachers need to address content language in their classes. Collaboration between content and language teachers can be beneficial and essential to both, as language teachers can provide insights into linguistic and cultural problems and offer communicative activities for overcoming these problems, and content teachers can suggest topics for the language courses that reinforce the content the students face. These collaborative efforts can help students develop greater language proficiency and concept mastery.

References

American Association for the Advancement of Science. (1989). *Science for all Americans.* Washington, DC: American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Center for Applied Linguistics (in progress). *Improving articulation between language arts classes and mathematics and science classes.* Project funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, Grant No. B 5003.

Crandall, J., Dale, T.C., Rhodes, N.C., & Spanos, G. (1984). *The language of mathematics: the English barrier.* Project funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, Grant No.G00B440473.

Crandall, J., Dale, T.C., Rhodes, N.C., & Spanos, G. (1989). *English skills for algebra.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Cuevas, G. (1984). Mathematics learning in English as a second language. In *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 15, 134-144. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ 295 800)

Cuevas, G. , Dale, T.C., Richardson, G., Tokar, R., & Willets, K. (1986). *Strategy sheet for integrating mathematics and language instruction.* Los Angeles: UCLA, Center for Language Education and Research.

Cuevas, G. & Hayden, D. (in progress). The pre-algebra lexicon. D. Short & G. Spanos (Eds.). Center for Applied Linguistics project funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, Grant No. B 5003.

Mathematical Sciences Education Board. (1989). *Everybody counts: A report to the nation on the future of mathematics education.* Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

Mestre, J.P. (1981). Predicting academic achievement among bilingual Hispanic college technical students. In *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 41, 1255-1264.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. (1989). *Curriculum and evaluation standards for school mathematics.* Reston VA: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Inc.

Spanos, G., Rhodes, N.C., Dale, T.C., & Crandall, J. (1988). Linguistic features of mathematical problem solving. In R. Cocking and J.P. Mestre (Eds.), *Linguistic and cultural influences on learning mathematics*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Resources

Center for Applied Linguistics (in progress). *Integrating mathematics and science education* (tentative title). Video project funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, Grant No. B 5003 and by the Xerox Corporation, Grant No. HE90788.

Miami-Dade Community College. (1989). *Preparing teachers to integrate math and language instruction.* Video project funded by the U.S. Dept. of Education.

This report (EDO-FL-89-03) was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. RI88062010. The opinions expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of OERI or ED.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ERIC® CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Digest

May 1996
(EDO-FL-96-07)

Practical Ideas on Alternative Assessment for ESL Students

Jo-Ellen Tannenbaum, Montgomery County Public Schools (MD)

Many educators have come to recognize that alternative assessments are an important means of gaining a dynamic picture of students' academic and linguistic development. "Alternative assessment refers to procedures and techniques which can be used within the context of instruction and can be easily incorporated into the daily activities of the school or classroom" (Hamayan, 1995, p. 213). It is particularly useful with English as a second language students because it employs strategies that ask students to show what they can do. In contrast to traditional testing, "students are evaluated on what they integrate and produce rather than on what they are able to recall and reproduce" (Huerta-Macías, 1995, p. 9). Although there is no single definition of alternative assessment, the main goal is to "gather evidence about how students are approaching, processing, and completing real-life tasks in a particular domain" (Huerta-Macías, 1995, p. 9). Alternative assessments generally meet the following criteria:

- Focus is on documenting individual student growth over time, rather than comparing students with one another.
- Emphasis is on students' strengths (what they know), rather than weaknesses (what they don't know).
- Consideration is given to the learning styles, language proficiencies, cultural and educational backgrounds, and grade levels of students.

Alternative assessment includes a variety of measures that can be adapted for different situations. This Digest provides examples of measures that are well suited for assessing ESL students.

Nonverbal Assessment Strategies

Physical Demonstration. To express academic concepts without speech, students can point or use other gestures. They can also be asked to perform hands-on tasks or to act out vocabulary, concepts, or events. As a comprehension check in a unit on Native Americans, for example, teachers can ask students to respond with thumbs up, thumbs down, or other nonverbal signs to true or false statements or to indicate whether the teacher has grouped illustrations (of homes, food, environment, clothing, etc.) under the correct tribe name. The teacher can use a checklist to record student responses over time.

Pictorial Products. To elicit content knowledge without requiring students to speak or write, teachers can ask students to produce and manipulate drawings, dioramas, models, graphs, and charts. When studying Colonial America, for example, teachers can give students a map of the colonies and labels with the names of the colonies. Students can then attempt to place the labels in the appropriate locations. This labeling activity can be used across the curriculum with diagrams, webs, and illustrations.

To culminate a unit on butterflies, teachers can ask beginning ESL students to illustrate, rather than explain, the life cycle of butterflies. Students can point to different parts of a butterfly on their own drawing or on a diagram as an assessment of vocabulary retention. Pictorial journals can be kept during the unit to record observations of the butterflies in the classroom or to illustrate comprehension of classroom material about types of butterflies, their habitats, and their characteristics.

K-W-L Charts

Many teachers have success using K-W-L charts (what I *know*/what I *want* to know/what I've *learned*) to begin and end a unit of study, particularly in social studies and science. Before the unit, this strategy enables teachers to gain an awareness of students' background knowledge and interests. Afterward, it helps teachers assess the content material learned. K-W-L charts can be developed as a class activity or on an individual basis. For students with limited English proficiency, the chart can be completed in the first language or with illustrations.

Sample K-W-L Chart

K	W	L
Lincoln was important.	Why is Lincoln famous?	Lincoln was President of the U.S.
His face is on a penny.	Was he a good President?	He was the 16th President.
He's dead now.	Why is he on a penny?	There was a war in America when Lincoln was President.
I think Lincoln was a President.	Did he have a family?	He let the slaves go free.
He was a tall person.	How did he die?	Two of his sons died while he was still alive.

Before a unit of study, teachers can have students fill in the K and W columns by asking them what they know about the topic and what they would like to know by the end of the unit. This helps to keep students focused and interested during the unit and gives them a sense of accomplishment when they fill in the L column following the unit and realize that they have learned something.

Oral Performances or Presentations

Performance-based assessments include interviews, oral reports, role plays, describing, explaining, summarizing, re-telling, paraphrasing stories or text material, and so on. Oral assessments should be conducted on an ongoing basis to monitor comprehension and thinking skills.

When conducting interviews in English with students in the early stages of language development to determine English profi-

ciency and content knowledge, teachers are advised to use visual cues as much as possible and allow for a minimal amount of English in the responses. Pierce and O'Malley (1992) suggest having students choose one or two pictures they would like to talk about and leading the students by asking questions, especially ones that elicit the use of academic language (comparing, explaining, describing, analyzing, hypothesizing, etc.) and vocabulary pertinent to the topic.

Role plays can be used across the curriculum with all grade levels and with any number of people. For example, a teacher can take on the role of a character who knows less than the students about a particular subject area. Students are motivated to convey facts or information prompted by questions from the character. This is a fun-filled way for a teacher to conduct informal assessments of students' knowledge in any subject (Kelner, 1993).

Teachers can also ask students to use role play to express mathematical concepts. For example, a group of students can become a numerator, a denominator, a fraction line, a proper fraction, an improper fraction, and an equivalent fraction. Speaking in the first person, students can introduce themselves and their functions in relationship to one another (Kelner, 1993). Role plays can also be used in science to demonstrate concepts such as the life cycle.

In addition, role plays can serve as an alternative to traditional book reports. Students can transform themselves into a character or object from the book (Kelner, 1993). For example, a student might become Christopher Columbus, one of his sailors, or a mouse on the ship, and tell the story from that character's point of view. The other students can write interview questions to pose to the various characters.

Oral and Written Products

Some of the oral and written products useful for assessing ESL students' progress are content area thinking and learning logs, reading response logs, writing assignments (both structured and creative), dialogue journals, and audio or video cassettes.

Content area logs are designed to encourage the use of metacognitive strategies when students read expository text. Entries can be made on a form with these two headings: What I Understood/ What I Didn't Understand (ideas or vocabulary).

Reading response logs are used for students' written responses or reactions to a piece of literature. Students may respond to questions–some generic, some specific to the literature–that encourage critical thinking, or they may copy a brief text on one side of the page and write their reflections on the text on the other side.

Beginning ESL students often experience success when an expository *writing assignment* is controlled or structured. The teacher can guide students through a pre-writing stage, which includes discussion, brainstorming, webbing, outlining, and so on. The results of pre-writing, as well as the independently written product, can be assessed.

Student writing is often motivated by content themes. Narrative stories from characters' perspectives (e.g., a sailor accompanying Christopher Columbus, an Indian who met the Pilgrims, a drop of water in the water cycle, etc.) would be valuable inclusions in a student's writing portfolio.

Dialogue journals provide a means of interactive, ongoing correspondence between students and teachers. Students determine the choice of topics and participate at their level of English language proficiency. Beginners can draw pictures that can be labeled by the teacher.

Audio and video cassettes can be made of student oral readings, presentations, dramatics, interviews, or conferences (with teacher or peers).

Portfolios

Portfolios are used to collect samples of student work over time to track student development. Tierney, Carter, and Desai (1991) suggest that, among other things, teachers do the following: maintain anecdotal records from their reviews of portfolios and from regularly scheduled conferences with students about the work in their portfolios; keep checklists that link portfolio work with criteria that they consider integral to the type of work being collected; and devise continua of descriptors to plot student achievement. Whatever methods teachers choose, they should reflect with students on their work, to develop students' ability to critique their own progress.

The following types of materials can be included in a portfolio:

- Audio- and videotaped recordings of readings or oral presentations.
- Writing samples such as dialogue journal entries, book reports, writing assignments (drafts or final copies), reading log entries, or other writing projects.
- Art work such as pictures or drawings, and graphs and charts.
- Conference or interview notes and anecdotal records.
- Checklists (by teacher, peers, or student).
- Tests and quizzes.

To gain multiple perspectives on students' academic development, it is important for teachers to include more than one type of material in the portfolio.

Conclusion

Alternative assessment holds great promise for ESL students. Although the challenge to modify existing methods of assessment and to develop new approaches is not an easy one, the benefits for both teachers and students are great. The ideas and models presented here are intended to be adaptable, practical, and realistic for teachers who are dedicated to creating meaningful and effective assessment experiences for ESL students.

References

Hamayan, E.V. (1995). Approaches to alternative assessment. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 15*, 212-226.

Huerta-Macías, A. (1995). Alternative assessment: Responses to commonly asked questions. *TESOL Journal, 5*, 8-10.

Kelner, L.B. (1993). *The creative classroom: A guide for using creative drama in the classroom, preK-6*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Pierce, L.V., & O'Malley, J.M. (1992). *Performance and portfolio assessment for language minority students*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Tierney, R.J., Carter, M.A., & Desai, L.E. (1991). *Portfolio assessment in the reading-writing classroom*. Norwood, MA: Christopher Gordon.

This report was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Dept. of Education, under contract no. RR93002010. The opinions expressed do not necessarily represent the positions or policies of OERI or ED.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Working Effectively with Hispanic Immigrant Families

BY LINDA J. HOLMAN

Ms. Holman describes the differing needs of Hispanic immigrant families and their children and suggests ways in which administrators and other school staff members can assist these newcomers in making a successful transition to school.

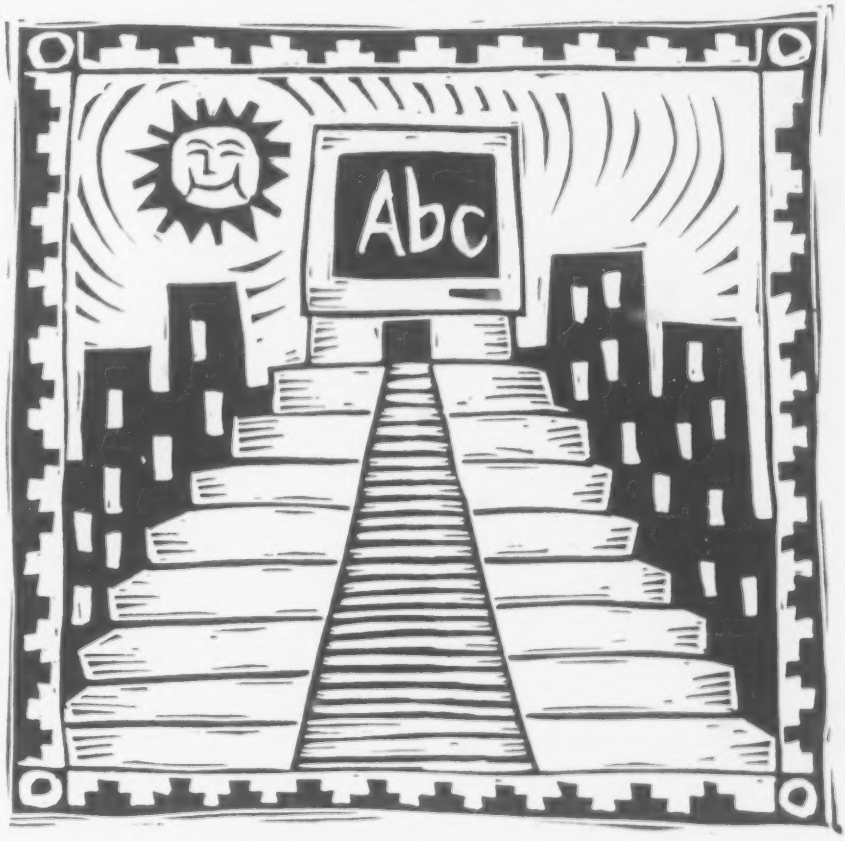


Illustration by Susan Todd

THE CATEGORY of "Hispanic," as established by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, includes a broad range of people of Latin American or Spanish descent. Although policy makers sometimes behave as if the term refers to a homogeneous group, the Hispanic community, particularly in the U.S./Mexico border area, is composed of several distinct groups, ranging from recent immigrants to this country to individuals whose families settled in the area as early as the 1600s.

In general, minority populations are distributed unequally throughout the U.S. They are concentrated primarily in urban areas and have high birth rates. Approximately 73.7% of the entire Hispanic population is concentrated in California, Texas, New York, and Florida, and the population of Hispanics who are under the age of 18 in these states is projected to increase from 11% to 28% by the year 2020.[1] Immigration from Central and South America affects population growth in California and Texas, and job opportunities in urban centers in New York and Florida attract immigrants from Cuba and the Caribbean.

Many urban school districts have experienced almost a complete reversal of traditional proportions of white and minority students, and minority students are the majority school population in many districts today. The proportion of the Hispanic population that is composed of new immigrants, both legal and illegal, is not easily determined. But the growing number of students enrolled in bilingual education programs suggests that it is substantial. According to the 1990 Census, 73% of the total foreign-born population under 18 years of age lives in California, Illinois, Florida, Texas, and New York.[2]

Many Hispanic children are likely to be from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, particularly those whose families have recently arrived and are depending on mini-

LINDA J. HOLMAN is principal of Hillside Elementary School, El Paso.

©1997 Phi Delta Kappan Reprinted with permission.

mum-wage jobs or are part of the "shadow economy." According to 1993 U.S. Census Bureau data, approximately 40% of Hispanic children live in poverty, compared to 13% of non-Hispanic white children.[3] As many as 45.7% of Hispanic children living in counties on the U.S./Mexico border, which traditionally have a high proportion of new immigrant families, live in poverty.[4]

Administrators in school districts experiencing growth in the number of new immigrant families will find that these families and their children have needs that differ from those of established Hispanic families in their neighborhoods. School personnel may not have much experience working with immigrant families. Administrators and other school staff members need to adjust their attitudes and take steps to assist the newly arrived families and their children in making a successful transition to school.

• The staff needs to recognize that it is likely that the children of these newly arrived Hispanic families will be motivated, hard-working students. Their parents have sacrificed a familiar way of life to move to the U.S. in order to provide themselves and their children with opportunities not available to them in their home countries. Frequently, they see access to our system of public education as one of these opportunities.

• The faculty and staff of the schools must also recognize that these families might come from a very different kind of world. Furthermore, the wives and children may not want to be here. And even families that desire the increased opportunities available to them in the U.S. can be "homesick" for their families, friends, language, and customs.

• Parents newly arrived in this country might have substantial formal education in their native language. Lack of skill in English can make it difficult for them to help their children with homework. Educational jargon and acronyms familiar to educators will have little meaning for these parents and should be avoided.

• Economic survival is the primary concern for immigrant families. Financial and time constraints may limit their availability for school conferences and parent meetings. Employers may view low-wage workers as replaceable, and so parents' failure to appear for a conference may not reflect a lack of concern for their child's progress. School personnel need to make accommodations whenever possible.

• Newly arrived Hispanic parents may feel inferior in their dealings with more highly educated school personnel, particularly if the parents are not comfortable with English. It is important for the schools to provide a welcoming, warm, and nonjudgmental reception for these parents. Taking the time to listen and respond respectfully to their questions and concerns will open avenues of communication between the school and the family. An outreach effort in the form of home visits, phone calls, and personal greetings at school events sends a strong message of welcome to new arrivals.

• Administrators should see that their staffs are educated with regard to bilingual education, so that they, in turn, can explain the practice to the newly arrived parents. Frequently, immigrant parents view immersion in English as the best way to ensure their children's acquisition of English. However, a young child whose oral usage indicates that his or her dominant language is not English should participate in a bilingual or English-as-a-second-language program. Such programs build proficiency in both the native language and in English and provide a solid foundation for transfer to instruction conducted in English.

• School staffs need to learn about cultural differences that newly arrived children from Central or South America may exhibit. For example, such children might regard direct eye contact as a sign of disrespect, while teachers take the refusal to make eye contact as a sign that students are being rebellious or untruthful. Similarly, the husband in a newly arrived family may take a leading role in conferences in the school while the wife may appear to be uninvolved. In actuality, parent partnership with the school is not traditional in Hispanic cultures, and in the home the mother will probably take primary responsibility for school matters.

In addition to learning about the problems of new Hispanic immigrants, school staffs need to make every effort to validate the strengths of immigrant families. There are a number of concrete steps that a staff can take to do so.

• Schools should encourage Hispanic parents to work with their children in their native language. By reading to the child and engaging in rich verbal communication, the parent will build a strong foundation for second-language learning.

• Schools should recognize that newly arrived Hispanic families come to us from a rich social context. Rather than try to "acculturate" these families, schools should encourage them to share their culture and background with others. Staff members should actively seek areas of expertise that these parents possess and make use of them in parent meetings, class lessons, and assemblies.

• Schools should work to minimize the language barrier. Second-language instruction for teachers and other school staff members should be provided. Someone on the staff should be bilingual and biliterate in Spanish. If a great many second languages are spoken by students in your school, you will probably need to develop a core of bilingual parents who are paid

"My goodness, Kevin, you're right! That is Waldo, way off in the background."

to help school staff members communicate with the recently arrived families. Be sure that all communications, whether in writing or at parent meetings, are in the parents' native language.[3] Be sure that your faculty and staff are aware that some parents are not literate in their native language and may ask you to explain the meaning of a piece of written communication. In such instances, school staff members should help the parent courteously and nonjudgmentally.

• Always give Hispanic parents full attention in conferences and conversations. If you are pressed for time when a parent approaches you, set a time when you will be able to give his or her concerns your full attention. You may not have many occasions to connect with newly arrived Hispanic parents, so take every opportunity to build a relationship.

• Immigrants may not be familiar with your school's procedures and organization. Providing a videotape in their language and conducting tours of the building can help them become familiar with the ways of schooling in the U.S. Early in the school year, parent meetings for this purpose might be held at each grade level. Your school may be very different from those in the parents' home country; provide an opportunity for them to ask questions, express their concerns, and obtain answers.

Immigrant children and their parents can prove to be a most rewarding group with which to work. Educators who strive to understand the circumstances, needs, and strengths of these children and their families, who provide them with a courteous, welcoming, humanized environment, and who take action to ensure a positive partnership will make their schools richer, more exciting, and more fulfilling places in which to work and learn.

1. Gary Natriello, Edward McDill, and Aaron Pallas, *Schooling Disadvantaged Children* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1990), pp. 28-37.
2. Lorraine M. McDonnell and Paul T. Hill, *Newcomers in American Schools* (Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND Corporation, 1993).
3. "Hispanic Gains Lag Behind Rest of U.S., Census Says," *El Paso Times*, 23 June 1994, p. 5-A.
4. Cindy Ramirez, "Poverty Cuts Children on the Border," *El Paso Times*, 25 November 1995, p. 1-A.
5. Kelt Cooper and Maria Luisa Gonzalez, "Communicating with Parents When You Don't Speak Their Language," *Principal*, vol. 73, 1993, pp. 45-46. K

National Curriculum Audit Center

PHI DELTA KAPPA INTERNATIONAL

Announces

The Curriculum Management Audit Training

June 23-27, 1997
(Monday - Friday)
Bloomington, Indiana
Phi Delta Kappa International Headquarters

October 22-26, 1997 (Wednesday - Sunday)
Indianapolis, Indiana
Westin Hotel

This is an opportunity for initial training sufficient to conduct an internal audit and advanced training for auditors involved in the certification process.

Make meaningful change possible in your district through an internal review!

For more information about
The Curriculum Management Audit *contact:*

Phi Delta Kappa's National Curriculum Audit Center
Center for Professional Development and Services
P.O. Box 789 • Bloomington, IN 47402-0789
812/339-1156 or 800/766-1156
Fax 812/339-0018 • E-mail cpds@pdkintl.org
www.pdkintl.org

Parental Involvement

Column Editor: Dr. Aurelio Montemayor, Intercultural Development Research Associates, TX

Parents as First Teachers: Creating an Enriched Home Learning Environment

by Abelardo Villarreal, Ph.D.

By the end of the first semester of second grade, Emilio was so fed up with his performance in school that he decided to play sick every morning. His teacher blamed Emilio and his parents for his poor performance, and his parents angrily accused school personnel for the inadequate education that he was receiving. At the losing end of this dichotomy was Emilio and his future.

Unfortunately this is not uncommon. Ill-defined roles and responsibilities for school personnel and parents and an inadequate instructional program for Emilio kept his educational well-being in abeyance. Numerous articles have been written to help school personnel reform their practices to assume a more responsible role in the education of all children and, in particular, the children who speak a language other than English or who share a different culture (TEA, 1994; Díaz-Soto, 1991; Villarreal, 1993). Although schools are still struggling to become more responsive to all students, this lack of success is not always due to lack of information (Cárdenas, 1995).

Parents, on the other hand, decry the lack of access to information for them to play their part as children's first teachers (Schoonmaker, 1992). The purpose of this article is to provide school personnel with insights for use in parenting workshops on enriching learning opportunities during their children's formative years (ages three to five).

Parenting involves taking responsibility seriously, taking advantage of every opportunity to enhance children's learning, and providing children with challenges. Children absorb life experiences indiscriminately. To a large extent, these life experiences form children's character, feelings and values, and they provide the window through which they will view the world (Scott, 1992; Villarreal, 1993). In other words, through interaction with their children and the experiences that they provide them, parents can influence and guide children's growth and development.

By age five children will be exposed to school life. Parents can either provide learning experiences haphazardly or unknowingly (with good intentions, but with little knowledge and no plan) or they can conscientiously plan for quality experiences to occur and exercise their obligation in a more responsible manner. There are three major tasks that parents can do to improve the learning environment at home. These tasks are discussed below.

Task 1: Learn More About How Children Learn

Parents who have been successful in their role as the first teachers of children share a similar philosophy about children's learning. This philosophy is defined by eight key assertions about parenthood and learning (Bredekamp, 1987). The following outlines these major thoughts that are instrumental for parents to be successful as children's first teachers.

A. Children are always ready to learn.

Children have an inborn capacity to learn (Forman and Kuschrer, 1983). They start learning from the time that they are in the mother's womb. The fact that children ask many questions or are eager to touch all that they see is an expression of their readiness to receive input from the environment. This innate willingness to learn could be nourished or weakened by childhood experiences from the environment. Parents must be vigilant and expose their children to the "right experiences."

What Parents Should Do

- Turn as many everyday life experiences as possible into learning opportunities.
- Model learning from everyday experiences.
- Talk about the importance of learning as a self-initiated activity.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Interact with children only when they ask a question ("I don't have time to talk").

B. Children have a curiosity for learning.

Children test the world. When the child jumps from a chair the first time and finds out that it hurts, he or she has learned the consequences of such an act. The responsibility of the parent is to teach the child that risks need to be calculated. Killing curiosity for learning will have serious consequences later in life.

What Parents Should Do

- Take advantage of children's questions to extend learning.
- Capitalize on children's interest in selecting learning experiences.
- Plan the home physical environment with children's needs and desires in mind.
- Purchase toys that are specifically designed to stimulate children's thinking and creativity.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Leave children's learning to chance.
- Tell children you are too busy to answer their questions.

C. Children learn from their environment.

Children learn from all aspects of the environment (Greenman, 1988; Penny-Velázquez, 1993; Adame-Reyna, 1995). The environment is represented by people and objects that surround them. Every experience, whether it is a positive or negative experience, will teach children something. Some experiences that can be used to teach new concepts and develop appropriate behaviors are the following: (1) child sees a mountain and asks about it. (2) child is involved in a fight with another

CONTINUED ON PAGE 14

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

child; (3) sister is reading a book and child sits next to her; (4) child receives a ball of clay; (5) child accompanies parent to the doctor's office; and (6) child watches a cartoon on television.

What Parents Should Do

- Expose children to experiences that teach social, academic and motor skills.
- Capitalize on children's interest in selecting learning experiences.
- Allow children to actively interact with the environment; allow them to explore and ask questions.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Expose children to experiences that focus only on one set of skills.
- Only expose children to experiences interesting to parents.

D. Children thrive in an environment of love and respect.

Children need to feel secure in order to take risks and take advantage of a learning experience (Scott, 1992; González-Mena, 1991; Allen and Mason, 1989). Children are unique individuals whose feelings evolve from their experiences with other people and with the environment that surrounds them. These feelings form the basis for children's self-esteem, love, and an appreciation and an acknowledgment of one's uniqueness.

Feelings can facilitate or hinder learning. Feelings that facilitate learning are based on love and respect. Children who feel a sense of belonging and feel like worthwhile individuals who have unique qualities and characteristics experience love and respect. Parents have the responsibility to sustain an environment full of love and respect and to nourish children's self-esteem when confronted with a hostile or unfriendly environment (Bredekamp, 1987; Scott, 1992; Adame-Reyna, 1995).

What Parents Should Do

- Show love for all their children equally.
- Celebrate the uniqueness of each child.
- Respect children's views of the world.
- Ask and value children's opinions.
- Provide opportunities to excel and experience positive feelings about themselves.
- Model respect for other's beliefs and values.
- Expect children to respect other's beliefs and values.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Be partial to some of your children.
- Criticize children for their actions and behaviors.
- Impose your will without an explanation for your action.
- Demean children because of their actions or beliefs.

E. Children have a potential for acquiring language.

Children learn from their parents or the persons with whom they live. Children have an innate capacity to process and use language (Sosa, 1993; Strickland, 1990; González-Mena, 1991). The process for learning a language is complex, requiring at least 12 years to formalize itself. In homes where the language is Spanish, children will become proficient in Spanish. If children live in an environment where a wide variety of languages are used, they will become very proficient in those languages. Parents, siblings and other adults who spend considerable time with the children become language models.

Parents should make sure that children are exposed to effective language users. Talking and reading with children develops their control of the language. Once children have mastered one language, they can learn a second one quickly. For example, children who have mastered the Spanish language well, have been exposed sufficiently to the English language at the appropriate time, and are not forced to learn the new language, can become proficient users of both Spanish and English. Parents should ensure that children are not prematurely forced to learn a new language.

What Parents Should Do

- Talk to children as often as possible.
- Engage children in conversations.
- Ask for their views about certain topics of interest.
- Increase children's vocabulary on different topics.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Use language to request children's compliance only.
- Criticize children for the way they express themselves.
- Turn down an opportunity to explain or respond to a question.
- Expect children to listen passively.
- Dominate a conversation with children.

F. Children can communicate ideas in many different ways.

Children are versatile individuals who have learned to communicate ideas through language, behaviors and actions (Gandini, 1993; Greenman, 1988). Many have learned that they can communicate ideas on paper. That is, children have learned that people's scribbles communicate an idea. Children who are ready to discover the excitement those scribbles represent begin to scribble themselves. Soon, their scribbling begins to communicate a feeling or an action. When asked, children will talk about the scribbling. Parents can help children master this form of communication by reading and providing them opportunities to scribble and talk about their masterpieces. Displaying their work guarantees acknowledgment of children's unique qualities and characteristics.

What Parents Should Do

- Provide opportunities to communicate ideas through speech or writing.
- Show children ways they can communicate ideas.
- Encourage children to use acceptable behavior.
- Redirect unacceptable behavior.
- Provide opportunities to appreciate art and music.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Criticize or demean cultures or languages that are different from theirs.
- Pressure children to react or respond in one specific way.

G. Children can acquire a love and desire for reading.

Reading is the most efficient way of acquiring information. Reading is a skill that children can develop from a very early age (Strickland, 1990; Greenman, 1988). Children who are exposed to print at a very early age tend to become better readers and learners when they go to school. They develop a thirst for information and knowledge. Parents can help their children by talking about the beauty of reading, by getting books for them to own, and by reading signs, labels and a range of items that have print on them.

What Parents Should Do

- Stress the importance of comprehending what is read.

FROM PAGE 13

- Provide opportunities to select topics or books to read.
- Read to children starting at an early age.
- Have print materials (newspapers, books, letters, forms and in whatever language) at home at all times.
- Read all labels and signs to and with children.
- Expose children to different literature styles at an early age.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Ask children to conform with your selection of reading materials only.
- Force children to begin decoding works when they are not ready.
- Criticize children for not liking to read.
- Compare children to other children's accomplishments.

H. Children learn in different ways.

Adults and children use the senses to learn (Forman and Kuschrer, 1983). Some learn by seeing. Others learn by hearing, reading or touching. Some of us are better at learning by using one particular sense or another. For example, some of us can learn better if the reading is accompanied by pictures. Reading about how to put a model together may be sufficient for some. While other children may learn better if presented with a "hands on" activity. Parents should keep this information in mind and determine which is the preferred way of their children to learn. Provide more opportunities for children to learn in their preferred way.

What Parents Should Do

- Provide learning opportunities using all the senses.
- Teach that some questions do not have a right or wrong answer.
- Provide opportunities for problem solving using the different senses.
- Provide with opportunities to role play.

What Parents Should Avoid

- Teaching children to learn only by reading and memorizing materials.
- Teach that one way of learning is better than another.

Contract with My Children

During the next six months, I (we) will try out th: following five activities:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

I (we) will find out if I (we) have been successful if my children do the following:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Signed:_____ Date: _____

Task 2: Establish a Vision and Goals

A vision is a mental picture of an event that has not yet occurred. A mental picture allows us to define what children would be able to do within a period of time. Getting there does not happen automatically; parents have to make sure that support is available to help them to get to that point. After hearing about a successful learner who entered school at age five, a parent decided to write down his vision for his three-year-old. The vision went like this:

My son will know about many things. He will be able to talk about them and express his desire to know more about certain things. He will not be afraid to ask if he is unsure of things. He will not be afraid of making mistakes. He will show respect and love for others and will always be happy. He will be highly dominant in Spanish, the language that we speak at home. He will be in the process of learning English in a meaningful manner and not feel frustrated or hurried to learn English immediately.

I challenge parents to do the same. Write or share with someone else a vision that will guide you and your children through the journey of childhood life.

The parent proceeded to write his goals in meeting this responsibility. Goals are like guideposts that define responsibility in making a vision a reality. His goals were:

- Strive to learn more about how children learn by reading articles, books or watching informational television programs.
- Take advantage of every opportunity to engage my children in learning.
- Create a home environment conducive to learning.
- Instill in my children a desire for learning

These goals served him and his children well. The parent planned activities to ensure that goals were met and the vision was realized.

Task 3: Reflect and Plan an Enriched Learning Home Environment

The third major task is to take stock, reflect and plan the improvement of the home learning environment. The chart on the facing page provides a checklist with activities that promote a positive home learning environment. Parents can use this checklist to reflect on what has been occurring at home. All ratings of "never" or "sometimes" merit some attention by parents. After

CONTINUED ON PAGE 16

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

using the checklist, parents may identify those activities that they propose to improve upon during the next six months. On this form, parents can write down their commitments to improve the learning environment. They can share this contract with their children and other adults and ask them to "check on them" periodically. They should post this contract on the refrigerator or a place where they will see it often. Repeat this process every six months.

Parents as effective teachers play several roles. First, they are good listeners. They listen to everything that children say, and they observe the environment that surrounds them. They respect what children have to say. There are no absurdities; whatever is said is said with a reason. Parents look for the message and question children when the message needs clarity. A good listener promotes the use of language by children. Children appreciate and are prompted to use language when they know that others listen and do not criticize them. One of the major responsibilities of a parent is to initiate conversations and take every opportunity for their children to use language.

Secondly, parents who are resourceful promote learning in many different ways. They have print available for children to see. They model the use of print to communicate ideas. A resourceful parent creates opportunities for learning.

Resources

Adame-Reyna, Ninta. "What Parents Can Do for Their Children's Mathematics Learning," *IDRA Newsletter* (San Antonio, Texas: Intercultural Development Research Association, February 1995).

Allen, JoBeth and Jana M. Mason. *Risk Makers, Risk Takers, Risk Breakers: Reducing the Risks for Young Literacy Learners* (Heinemann Educational Book, Inc., 1989).

Bredekamp, Sue (editor). *Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs Serving Children From Birth Through Age 8* (Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987).

Cárdenas, José A. *Multicultural Education: A Generation of Advocacy* (Needham Heights, Mass.: Simon & Schuster Custom Publishing, 1995).

Díaz-Soto, Lourdes. "Understanding Bilingual/Bicultural Young Children," *Young Children* (January 1991).

Forman, George E. and David S. Kuschner. *The Child's Construction of Knowledge: Piaget for Teaching Children* (Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1983).

Gandini, Lella. "Fundamentals of the Reggio Emilia Approach to Early Childhood Education" *Young Children* (November 1993).

González-Mena, Janet. *Tips and Tidbits: A Book for Family Daycare Providers* (Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1991).

Greenman, Jim. *Caring Spaces, Learning Places: Children's Environments That Work* (Redmond, Wash.: Exchange Press, Inc., 1988).

Penny-Velázquez, Michaela. "Yo Escribo: Promoting Interactions in the Early Childhood Classroom," *IDRA Newsletter* (San Antonio, Texas: Intercultural Development Research Association, August 1993).

Schoonmaker, Mary Ellen. "When Parents Accept the Unacceptable," *Early Childhood Education* (Guilford, Conn.: the Dushkin Publishing Company, 1992).

Scott, Bradley. "Providing for Strong Roots: The Teacher and Human Relations in the Preschool" *IDRA Newsletter* (San Antonio, Texas: Intercultural Development Research Association, April 1992).

Sosa, Alicia S. *Questions and Answers About Bilingual Education* (San Antonio, Texas: Intercultural Development Research Association, 1993).

Strickland, Dorothy S. "Emergent Literacy: How Young Children Learn to Read and Write," *Educational Leadership* (March 1990).

Texas Education Agency. *First Impressions: Primeras Impresiones* (Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency, January 1994).

Villarreal, Abelardo. "The Challenge for Site-Based Decision Making Council: Making Quality Preschool Accessible to Language Minority Students," *IDRA Newsletter* (San Antonio, Texas: Intercultural Development Research Association, June 1993).

Abelardo Villarreal is the director of the IDRA Division of Professional Development.

Reprinted with permission from IDRA Newsletter, April 1995.

Editor's Note: *NABE is pleased to announce the appointment of Dr. Aurelio Montemayor as editor of the new regular* **Parental Involvement** *column. Contributions should be sent directly to Dr. Montemayor at: IDRA, 5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350, San Antonio, TX 78228. (210) 684-8180; fax (210) 684-5389.*

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
DENTON, TEXAS
Position Availability

Associate Professor, Tenure Track, Department of Reading and Bilingual Education. Doctorate in curriculum and instruction, second language acquisition, or allied area, emphasis in bilingual education. At least three years teaching experience in elementary/secondary education. Appointment August, 1996. Salary competitive. Submit letter of application, curriculum vitae, and three letters of reference to Rudy Rodríguez, Bilingual/ESL Search Committee Chair, Department of Reading and Bilingual Education, College of Education and Human Ecology, Texas Woman's University, P. O. Box 425769, Denton, Texas, 76204-5769. (817)898-2227; TDD (817)898-3606. Application review begins March 1, 1996, continuing until position is filled. Equal opportunity/affirmative action employer. Women, minorities encouraged to apply.

See you at NABE '96 in Orlando, FL!

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Parents as First Teachers Checklist

Rate each item according to the degree that it is practiced in your household, by writing the appropriate number in the blank to th eright of the statement. Use the following codes: Always = 1 Sometimes = 2 Never = 3

1. I take advantage of as many learning opportunities for my children as possible. _____
2. I model by taking advantage of as many learning opportunities as possible. _____
3. I talk about the importance of learning from every experience with my children. _____
4. I take advantage of my children's questions by extending learning. _____
5. I capitalize on my children's interests in selecting learning experiences. _____
6. I plan my home physical environment with my children's needs and desires in mind. _____
7. I purchase toys that stimulate children's thinking skills. _____
8. I expose my children to experiences that develop social, academic and/or motor skills. _____
9. I respect my children's views of the world. _____
10. I ask children for their opinions. _____
11. I acknowledge my children's efforts. _____
12. I praise my children's accomplishments. _____
13. I model respect for other's beliefs and values. _____
14. I expect my children to respect others' beliefs and values. _____
15. I talk to my children as often as possible. _____
16. I engage in conversations and discussions with my children. _____
17. I ask for my children's views about certain topics. _____
18. I strive to increase my children's vocabularies in many different topics. _____
19. I provide opportunities for my children to express their ideas in different ways. _____
20. I model how ideas can be expressed in different ways. _____
21. I acknowledge my children's use of acceptable behavior. _____
22. I redirect my children's use of unacceptable behavior. _____
23. I provide opportunities for my children to appreciate art and music. _____
24. I probe to ensure that my children understand the importance of comprehending what is read. _____
25. I provide opportunities for children to select topics or books to be read. _____
26. I read to my children constantly. _____
27. I have print material available at home. _____
28. I read all labels and signs with my children. _____
29. I expose my children to classic literature. _____
30. I provide my children opportunities to use the different senses to learn. _____
31. I teach my children that some questions do not have a right answer. _____
32. I provide my children opportunities for problem solving using the different senses. _____
33. I provide my children opportunities to role play. _____

EDO-RC-94-7 November 1994

Migrant Farmworkers and their Children

by Philip Martin

ERIC DIGEST

This digest reviews the population characteristics of migrant and seasonal farmworkers and their children. No current data system provides a reliable count or profile of migrant children, but a data-gathering initiative launched in 1989 to determine the effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act on agriculture suggests that there are about 840,000 migrant farmworkers who have 409,000 children traveling with them as they do farmwork.

According to these data, the typical migrant child today shuttles between one U.S. and one Mexican residence, rather than following the crops from one U.S. residence to another. However, farmworkers and the farm labor market are changing rapidly in the face of immigration reforms, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and structural changes in Mexico and Latin America, making a better database on farmworkers and their children more important than ever.

Expansion of Federal Efforts to Serve Migrants

The 1960s image of a migrant farmworker depicted a hardworking White, Black, or Hispanic family who lived during the winter months in southern Florida, southern Texas, or central California. Every spring, they followed the sun northward to harvest ripening crops from New York to Michigan to Washington.

The federal government began programs in the 1960s to help migrant workers and their families to escape from "the migrant stream." In 1965, observers estimated there were 466,000 migrant farmworkers, most of whom were U.S. citizens. Many of these workers traveled across state lines with their families to harvest crops.

During the era of the Civil Rights Movement, federal assistance was provided to overcome the reluctance of state and local governments to assist migrant workers who were in the area for only a short time. Many communities wanted migrants to depart as soon as the harvest was over. For example, 39 states in 1960 had welfare regulations that required recipients to be residents of the area from 6 months to 3 years (*Migrant and Seasonal Farmworker Powerlessness*, 1970-71).

During the 1970s and 1980s, federal programs for migrant workers and their families multiplied. Today the 12 major migrant and seasonal programs for farmworkers spend over $600 million annually, which is equivalent to about 10 percent of what the 1 million migrant and seasonal farmworkers earn in wages (Martin & Martin, 1994).

However, none of these federal migrant and seasonal farmworker programs has the same definition of *migrant* or *seasonal farmworker*, and many programs have expanded their definitions over time. For these reasons, there are no time series data that allow analysts to chart the number of migrant farmworkers and their children over time. During the 1980s, when Congress expressed interest in the number and legal status of farmworkers to project the effects of immigration reform on U.S. agriculture, the data problems were described as a harvest of confusion (Martin, 1988).

What Current Labor Department Data Show

This Digest summarizes data about worker characteristics drawn from the National Agricultural Worker Survey (NAWS). The NAWS study was initiated by the U.S. Department of Labor in 1989 to address fears that immigration reforms were likely to result in farm labor shortages. Other federal databases exist: The Department of Agriculture Farm Labor Survey includes information on farmworkers and their children based on data collected from farm employers about workers they employed during a particular week, and the Department of Education's Migrant Student Record Transfer System includes data on students identified as having parents who are or were migrant farmworkers. Farm labor researchers consider the NAWS data, however, to be the best data currently available. (For reviews of other farm labor data sources, see Martin & Martin, 1994.)

NAWS data examines migrant farmworkers as a category of workers in the total farm labor force. According to the study, there are about 5 million persons employed sometime each year to work on the nation's 800,000 farms that hire labor. About 2 million of these workers help to produce crops. Crop production involves more seasonal employment peaks and troughs than livestock production, hence, most migrant and seasonal farmworkers are employed on crop farms. About half of these 2 million crop workers are employed more than one month in agriculture, but less than 10 months; which translates into about 1 million American workers depending on seasonal farm jobs for most of their annual earnings (Mines, Gabbard, & Samardick, 1993). In the absence of a single federal definition for migrant farmworkers, the NAWS study defined migrants as workers who travel 75 or more miles in search of crop work. About 42 percent of the 7,200 workers interviewed while doing crop farm jobs between 1989 and 1991 fit this definition of migrant workers. This suggests that approximately 840,000 of the nation's 2 million

Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools
including
Alaska Natives and American Indians, Mexican Americans, Migrants, Outdoor Education

Appalachia Educational Laboratory
PO Box 1348
Charleston, WV
25325-1348

crop workers are migrants. Migrant and seasonal farmworkers average about $5 hourly for 1,000 hours of work, for an average income of $5,000 annually.

The NAWS study revealed that the migrant farmworkers were

- primarily Hispanics (94 percent),
- born in Mexico (80 percent),
- married with children (52 percent),
- doing farmwork in the U.S. without their families (59 percent),
- mostly men (82 percent), and
- are today, or were until 1987-88, unauthorized workers (67 percent).

NAWS interviewers obtained job histories from each worker interviewed, and this enabled them to distinguish among three different groups of migrant farmworkers:

- about 280,000 followed the crops from farm to farm and often from state to state;
- about 700,000 workers shuttled into the U.S. from homes abroad, usually in Mexico, but then remained at one U.S. residence while they did farmwork; and
- about 140,000 of the workers first shuttled into the U.S. from homes abroad and then followed the crops, and are thus double counted in the first two groups.

These migrant farmworkers together are accompanied by about 409,000 children. Of the children, 373,000 traveled with their parents and did not do farmwork, while 36,000 traveled and also did farmwork. In addition, the NAWS data suggest that there are 169,000 youth who travel at least 75 miles to do farmwork without their parents.

It should be emphasized that the data on migrant farmworkers and their children are remarkably inadequate. The data presented here could be misconstrued to suggest that there are fewer migrant children than the target populations of some of the federal programs designed to serve migrants and their families. For example, the Migrant Education Program serves the children of year-round workers employed on livestock farms (if they moved within the last 6 years) and also serves the children of workers employed in food processing plants in which there is a high turnover among the workers. Labor laws consider this last group of workers nonfarmworkers; not all migrant workers work on farms.

Other federal programs serve fewer workers than are indicated by this description. The Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) 402 program, for example, casts a wide net to include migrant and seasonal farmworkers employed in nonfarm packinghouse and processing operations. However, JTPA limits eligibility for its services to workers legally authorized to be in the United States who are employed at least 25 days in agriculture and who obtain at least 50 percent of their earnings from farmwork, or spend 50 percent of their working time doing farmwork.

Implications for Migrant Programs

Migrant farmworkers are probably the largest needy workforce in the United States. Evidence exists that migrant children's chances for success in the U.S. economy are hurt rather than helped by their parents' occupation (National Commission on Agricultural Workers, 1992).

The situation is not likely to go away by itself, either. Labor-intensive crop production in the U.S. has increased at a pace faster than that at which labor-saving machines have displaced farmworkers (Martin, 1990). The value of U.S.-produced fruits and nuts, vegetables and melons, and horticultural specialties such as flowers and mushrooms reached $30 billion in 1991, 38 percent of the value of total U.S. crop sales (U.S. Department of Agriculture). To put this growing sector of U.S. agriculture in perspective, the value of only four of the hand-harvested commodities—oranges, grapes, apples, and lettuce—exceeds the value of the U.S. wheat crop.

NAFTA is unlikely to change the role of the U.S. as North America's fruit and salad bowl, largely because most fruits and vegetables are harvested in the fall, during the season when Mexican production is lowest (Martin, 1993). But NAFTA and economic restructuring in Mexico is changing the characteristics of migrant farmworkers and their children. Displacement and dislocation in rural Mexico, where 30 million people have an average income of less than $1,000 annually, is expected to accelerate Mexico-to-U.S. migration in the 1990s. Some of these new migrant children will likely speak Indian languages rather than Spanish.

Migrant and seasonal farmworker service providers thus may see their roles evolve into being the primary government-funded service group addressing the needs of new immigrants to the U.S. In this capacity, they will be dealing with children who may not speak English or Spanish, and whose parents may not know whether they will want or be able to remain in the U.S. For these reasons, migrant programs that serve migrant farmworkers' children will need flexibility to deal with an ever-changing population as we move through the last years of this century.

References

Martin, P. L. (1988). *Harvest of confusion: Migrant workers in U.S. agriculture*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Martin, P. L. (1990). The outlook for agricultural labor in the 1990s. *U.C. Davis Law Review*, 23(3), 499-523.

Martin, P. L. (1993). *Trade and migration: NAFTA and agriculture*. Washington, DC: Institute for International Economics.

Martin, P. L., & Martin, D. (1994). *The endless quest: Helping America's farmworkers*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Migrant and seasonal farmworker powerlessness: Hearings before the Subcommittee on Migratory Labor of the Committe on Labor and Public Welfare, Senate, 91st Cong., 1st and 2nd Sess. (1970-71). (16 volumes of hearings produced under the direction of Senator Walter Mondale).

Mines, R., Gabbard, S., & Samardick, R. (1993). *U.S. farmworkers in the post-IRCA period: Based on data from the National Agricultural Workers Survey (NAWS)*. (Research Report 4). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy.

National Commission on Migrant Education. (1992). *Invisible children: A portrait of migrant education in the United States. Final report*. Washington, DC: Author. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 348 206)

U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. ERS. Economic Indicators of the Farm Sector (annual).

Dr. Philip L. Martin teaches at the University of California—Davis, Department of Agricultural Economics.

This publication was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. RR93002012. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of OERI, the Department, or AEL.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools is operated by the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL), Inc. AEL serves as the Regional Educational Laboratory for Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia and operates the Eisenhower Regional Math/Science Consortium for these same four states. AEL is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Employer.

EDO-RC-94-7